THE SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For MAY 1800.

CONTENTS.

	Page
New Patents—For Starching and Preparing Cotton Yarn.—For a method of multiplying Engravings or Chafings, on all kinds of Metal	290
The Life of David Hume, Esq;	291
Sketch of the Life of Gen. Washington, *continued*	297
Anecdotes and Gleanings	300
On the Language of Beasts	301
On the Spirit of Play, an Essay by the late Mr Boyd	307
Miscellaneous Observations relative to the Western Parts of Pensylvania	311
Memorabilia for March	314
Account of a newly discovered Shrub in Prince of Wales' Island	316
Account of the Origin and Progress of the *Royal Institution* of Great Britain	318
An Extract from a Dissertation on the Primitive Religion of the Hindus	320
Of the Origin and Invention of Butter	322
A Recipe for preparing waterproof Leather	324
The Story of Madame la Marquise de ——, *continued*	325
REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.	
Marsh's History of the Politics of Great Britain and France	331
St Fond's Travels through England, Scotland, &c.	336
Lesser's Insecto-Theology	339
NEW PUBLICATIONS	340
POETRY.	Page
Ode to Spring	342
Verses wrote by a Youth, a short time after leaving his Father's house	343
The Frantic Lover	343
Valedictory Elegy to Mary	344
BRITISH PARLIAMENT.	
Commons—Corn Committee report. Motion on the war. New Income tax. Union with Ireland	345-52
Lords—Bill for the prevention of adultery	353
MONTHLY REGISTER.	
GAZETTE INTELLIGENCE.	
Containing dispatches from W. Wickham, Esq; and Lieut. Col. Clinton relative to opening of the campaign in Germany	354
FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.	
Russia. Germany. Italy. Egypt. America. East-indies.	357-58
IRELAND.	
Articles of the Union acceded to by the Parliament.	358
LONDON.	
A ball fired by accident, during the field-day of the foot-guards	358
Attempt to assassinate his Majesty at the Theatre,	359
EDINBURGH.	
Dreadful fire at Edinamock,	359
Meal Riots,	359
Incidental occurrences	360
General Assembly Proceedings,	361
Circuit Intelligence,	362-3
Report of the Weather, &c.	363
LISTS—Marriages, Births, &c.	364

EDINBURGH:

Sold by JAMES WATSON, No 40. South Bridge;
And by the Principal Booksellers in Town and Country:
And by T. KAY, Strand; and R. B. SCOTT, Brydges Street,
Covent-Garden, London;

NEW PATENTS.

For Starching and preparing Cotton Yarn.

A PATENT was granted, March 1800, to Robert Stuart of Blantyre Cotton-Mills, near Glaſgow, for a method of ſtarching and preparing cotton-yarn in that ſtate called the Cop, by which means it is fitted for being made into either the warp or the woof of the web, without undergoing certain operations at preſent in uſe.

The firſt proceſs of ſpinning cotton winds it upon ſpindles, which, when full, have the form of a double cone joined baſe to baſe; but in the common mode of manufacture it is neceſſary, that it ſhould undergo the operation of roving, or a ſecond ſpinning, in order to render the thread more denſe, compact and ſmooth. The patentee ſaves this proceſs by ſubjecting the ſpindles to conſiderable preſſure, which he thinks anſwers the ſame purpoſe of rendering the threads more denſe and cleaner. To perform this compreſſion, he fixes on a block frame, containing a number of copper moulds, each of which has the form of an inverted cone, and is intended to receive one half of each of the ſpindles. A ſimilar frame with correſponding moulds, but with the baſe of the c e downwards, is fixed in a ſcrew preſs, and is let down upon the inferior frame in ſuch a manner, that the upper and under moulds, when in contact with each other, form a cavity of the ſhape of the ſpindle, and rather leſs in demenſions. To apply this machine, the ſpindle of cotton thread is ſet into the under moulds, and the upper frame let down upon the projecting half of the ſpindle, and by an arm ſcrew-preſs the whole is ſubjected to great preſſure without deranging the threads, but only rendering them flatter and more compact. The ſpindles for the woof of the web are preſſed in this way, without any previous preparation, thoſe intended for the warp are firſt boiled in flour and water, and when fully ſoaked with the paſte are put into the preſs. When thus paſted, they will retain their arrangement, and may be tranſported from place to place without any damage.

For a method of multiplying engravings or chaſings, on all kinds of metal.

A PATENT was granted to Mr James Yates of Bordſly, near Birmingham, Braſs-Founder, for a method of multiplying engravings, or chaſings, on all kinds of metal. In this contrivance the deſign is engraved on a ſolid block of ſteel, copper, or any other metal, which is then fixed in a die of metal, which has a projecting ring or collar round it, ſo as to form a kind of diſh which riſes above the engraved ſurface. A block of metal is then compreſſed upon the engraving with thin plates of any ſoft metal interpoſed, and the whole laid under a ſtamping-preſs, by which a perfect impreſſion is made from the engraved block. Thin plates of metal are then ſtamped, and the raiſed ſide of the impreſſion is fitted with metal or cement to a requiſite thickneſs, ſo that the reverſe ſide has the appearance of the original engraved block or pattern.

THE

SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For MAY 1800.

THE LIFE OF DAVID HUME, Esq.

From Smellies Lives.

IT is an arduous task to give an impartial account of an author who has been the object of so much praise and of so much obloquy as Mr Hume: Yet the attempt must be made.

Mr Hume was born at Edinburgh on the 26th of April 1711, old style. His father's family was a branch of the Earl of Hume's, and his mother was a daughter of Sir David Falconer, president of the College of Justice. His family, however, was not opulent; and he being a younger brother, his patrimony was, of course, very trifling. His father died when Mr Hume was an infant; and he, along with a sister and an elder brother, were left to the care of their mother, who devoted her whole attention to the rearing and educating of her children. Mr Hume passed through the ordinary courses of education with great success, and very early discovered an uncommon passion for literature. This last circumstance suggested to his friends the idea that the profession of the law would be a proper employment for him; but young Hume had an insuperable aversion to every thing but the pursuits of philosophy and of general learning; and he tells us, that, when he was supposed to be studying Voet and Vinnius, Cicero and Virgil were the authors which he was secretly devouring.

This plan, however, his narrow fortune was unable to support. He, therefore, made an attempt to enter upon a more active scene of life. With this view, in the year 1734, he went to Bristol, and had recommendations to some of the most eminent merchants in that city. In a few months, he discovered that this species of business was irksome and disagreeable to him. In order to prosecute his studies with the greater success, as well as to enable him to live upon his small fortune, he went to a country retreat. His chief residence was at La Fleche, in Anjou, where he composed his *Treatise of Human Nature*, which, after returning to London, he published in the year 1738. 'Never literary attempt,' Mr Hume remarks, 'was more unfortunate than my Treatise of Human Nature. It fell *dead born from the press*, without reaching such distinction as even to excite a murmer among the *zealots*.'—Vide his own Life, p. 8.

This complaint is curious, and confirms the old adage, that an author is the worst judge of the merit or demerit of his own works. Mr Hume's *Treatise of Human Nature*, as he himself informs us, excited no attention, either of praise or of censure, from the public. No wonder! When much younger, I read that book with great ardour, and with great application. Some parts of it I perceived to be both ingenious and brilliant, and others so involved in obscurity to my own inability, and was often ashamed, for that reason, to acknowledge that I had read it, because I could not give any distinct account of the book. When

 older,

older, I perused it a second time, and then perceived an ingenious literary *trick*, if I may use such an expression. Mr Hume, when he begins an essay, or turns the *corner* of any argument, most artfully lays down a seemingly simple position, to which almost every reader gives a ready assent. From that moment, however, the reader is most completely bewildered: For, whenever these plausible positions are admitted, or inadvertently passed over, such is the force of Mr Hume's reasonings, and such the beauty and energy of his eloquence, that no reader can resist the torrent. Dean Swift says, that the best way to conquer a woman, is to catch her by the *tail*. But the only successful mode of conquering Mr Hume is to catch him by the *nose*.

In the year 1742, Mr Hume published at Edinburgh the first part of his Essays. This work met with a more favourable reception from the public, and gave him some consolation for his former disappointment. In 1745, he was invited by the Marquis of Annandale, who was then indisposed both in mind and in body, to come and live with him in England, where Mr Hume continued during twelve months; and, by his appointments in that station, was enabled to make a considerable addition to his small fortune. He then received an invitation from General St Clair to attend him as secretary to an expedition against Canada, but which ended in an incursion on the coast of France. In 1747, Mr Hume was again invited by General St Clair to attend him in the same station in his embassy to the courts of Vienna and Turin. He then wore the uniform of an officer; and, in the character of aid-de-camp to the General, was introduced into these courts. These two years, he tells us, were almost the only interruptions he met with to his studies during the course of his life. But he passed them agreeably; and his appointments joined to his own frugality, soon enabled him to amass near a thousand pounds.

Mr Hume imagined that his *Treatise of Human Nature* had failed of success more from the manner of writing than from the matter. He, therefore, to use his own expression, *cast* the first part of that work anew in his *Inquiry concerning Human Understanding*, which was published while he was at Turin. But, at first, this piece was not much more successful than the former. Mr Hume, however, though he must have felt those disappointments, was not altogether discouraged. In the 1749, he came down from London to Scotland, and lived at his brother's country-house, where he composed the second part of his Essay, which he called *Political Discourses*, and likewise his *Inquiry concerning the Principles of Morals*, which, he tells us, in another part of his *Treatise*, that he *cast* anew. Soon afterwards, he was informed by Mr A. Millar, his London bookseller, that his former publications, except his unfortunate Treatise, were beginning to be the subject of conversation; that the sale of them was gradually increasing; and that new editions were become necessary to answer the demands of the public. 'Answers,' he archly remarks, 'by Reverends and Right Reverends, came out two and three in a year; and I found, by *Dr Warburton's railing*, that the books were beginning to be esteemed in *good company*.'—Mr Hume's own Life, p. 10.

Mr Hume, in the year 1751, removed from the country, and came to Edinburgh, which he emphatically terms the *true scene for a man of letters*.—Mr Hume's own Life, p. 11.—In 1752, he published his *Political Discourses*, the first work of his which was successful at the outset. In the same year appeared his *Inquiry concerning the Principles of Morals*, 'which is,' says he, 'of all my writings, historical, philosophical, or literary, incomparably the best.'—Mr Hume's own Life, p. 11.—But the public were

of

of a contrary opinion: for the book was either totally neglected, or treated with contempt.

In the same year, he was appointed by the Faculty of Advocates their Librarian, from which office he received only a trifling emolument; but it gave him the command of a great collection of books and manuscripts. When this Library falls naturally to be mentioned, it would be unpardonable not to tell a truth of which every man of letters in Edinburgh has daily experience. The collection, especially of printed books, exceeds greatly that of any library in Britain; and free access to the perusal of them is cheerfully and politely allowed. On this subject, I must go farther. The occasional use of books or manuscripts, in a public library, is a most valuable privilege. The Faculty of Advocates, however, not only grant this privilege, but any member of that Faculty can, by his signature, oblige his friends with such books as he chuses out of doors for a reasonable time; and such requests, on all proper occasions, are most liberally granted. The Faculty do more. Literary gentlemen, by giving bond for a certain sum, often acquire the privilege of taking out books upon their own receipts. To this noble collection, joined to the generosity of its proprietors, Scotland, for these hundred years past, has been indebted for the many productions of genius and of learning which have enabled her sons, within that period, to make such a distinguished figure in almost every department of science. I must not, however, omit her powerful auxiliaries. The libraries of the University of Edinburgh, and of the College of Physicians, are very great, and particularly enriched with books of Medicine, of Anatomy, and of Natural History. The access to these libraries is equally easy as to that of the Faculty of Advocates. But, to return.—In this most favourable situation, where he had an opportunity of consulting almost every authentic re-

source, Mr Hume formed the plan of writing the *History of England*. He commenced with the accession of the House of Stuart, and afterwards observed a retrograde motion. Of the success of this work, he acknowledges his expectations were sanguine. 'But,' says he, 'miserable was my disappointment: I was assailed by one cry of reproach, disapprobation, and even detestation; English, Scotch, and Irish, Whig and Tory, Churchman and Sectary, Freethinker and Religionist, Patriot and Courtier, united in their rage against the man who had presumed to shed a generous tear for the fate of Charles I. and the Earl of Strafford; and, after the ebullitions of their fury were over, what was still more mortifying, the book seemed to sink into oblivion.'—His own Life p. 11, 12.

Some time afterwards, he published at London his *Natural History of Religion*. 'Its public entry,' he remarks, 'was rather obscure, except only that Dr Hurd wrote a pamphlet against it, with all the illiberal petulance, arrogance, and scurrility, which distinguish the Warburtonian school. This pamphlet gave me some consolation for the otherwise indifferent reception of my performance.—His own Life, p. 11, 12.

Two years after the miscarriage of the first volume, viz. in 1756, he published the second volume of his History of England, which included the period from the death of Charles I. to the Revolution. This performance gave less umbrage to the Whigs, and was more favourably received by the public. 'It not only rose itself,' says he, 'but helped to buoy up its unfortunate brother.'—His own Life, p. 11, 12.—In the year 1759, Mr Hume published his *History of the House of Tudor*. The clamour excited by this work was nearly equal to that against the History of the two Stuarts. The reign of Elizabeth was particularly offensive. 'But,' he tells us, 'I was now callous against the impressions of

public folly, and continued very peaceably and contentedly in my retreat at Edinburgh, to finish, in two volumes, the more early period of the English History, which I gave to the public in 1761, with tolerable, and but tolerable success.'—His own Life, p. 13.

Notwithstanding, however, a very general clamour and many rude attacks, Mr Hume's writings gradually acquired more and more reputation; and he received from the booksellers higher copy-money than had been given to any other author in Britain before that period. He now found himself not only independent, but opulent; and, therefore, he retired to his native country of Scotland, with a design never to leave it again. At that time, he was turned of fifty years, when, in the year 1763, he received an invitation from the Earl of Hertford to attend him on his embassy to Paris, with a near prospect of being his secretary. This offer, however, Mr Hume at first declined, on account of his age, and the reluctance he felt against mingling again with the gay company of the French metropolis. But, upon his Lordship's repeating the invitation, Mr Hume at last consented. He was afterwards appointed secretary to the embassy. In summer 1765, Lord Hertford was called home to be Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and Mr Hume was left *charge d'affaires* till the arrival of the Duke of Richmond about the end of the same year. In the beginning of the year 1766, Mr Hume left Paris, and next summer went to Edinburgh with the view of enjoying an agreeable retreat among philosophical friends, with which that city, though not large, peculiarly abounds. Mr Amyat, King's Chymist, a most sensible and agreeable English gentleman, resided in Edinburgh for a year or two. He one day surprised me with a curious remark. There is not a city in Europe, said he, that enjoys such a singular and such a noble privilege. I asked, What is that privilege? He replied, Here I stand at what is called the *Cross of Edinburgh*, and can, in a few minutes, take fifty men of genius and learning by the hand. The fact is well known; but to a native of that city, who has all his days been familiarized with it, and who has not travelled into other countries, that circumstance, though very remarkable, passes unnoticed: Upon strangers, however, it makes a deep impression. In London, in Paris, and other large cities of Europe, though they contain many literary men, the access to them is difficult; and, even after that is obtained, the conversation is, for some time, shy and constrained. In Edinburgh, the access to men of parts is not only easy, but their conversation and the communication of their knowledge are at once imparted to intelligent strangers with the utmost liberality. The philosophers of Scotland have no nostrums. They tell what they know, and deliver their sentiments without disguise or reserve. This generous feature was conspicuous in the character of Mr Hume. He insulted no man; but, when the conversation turned upon particular subjects, whether moral or religious, he expressed his genuine sentiments with freedom, with force, and with a dignity which did honour to human nature.

In the year 1767, Mr Hume was invited by Mr Conway to be under Secretary, which both the character of the person, and his connexions with Lord Hertford, prevented him from declining. He returned to Edinburgh in 1769 very opulent; for he then possessed a revenue of 1000l. a-year; and, though, pretty far advanced in life, he was in good health, and had the prospect of long enjoying ease, and seeing the increase of his reputation.

In spring 1775, he began to be afflicted with a disorder in his bowels, which at first did not alarm him: but

he

soon afterwards apprehended that a mortification, and, of course, a speedy dissolution were to ensue. Still, however, his cheerfulness and usual alacrity, notwithstanding the great decline of his body, did not desert him. He considered, that a man of sixty-five, by dying, cuts off only a few years of infirmities, and perhaps of peevishness and anxiety. Mr Hume concludes his life with a short sketch of what he apprehended to be his own character and dispositions: 'I am, or rather was,' says he, 'a man of mild disposition, of command of temper, of an open, social, and cheerful humour, capable of attachment, but little susceptible of enmity, and of great moderation in all my passions. Even my love of literary fame, my ruling passion, never soured my temper, notwithstanding my frequent disappointments. My company was not unacceptable to the young and careless, as well as to the studious and literary; and, as I took a particular pleasure in the company of modest women, I had no reason to be displeased with the reception I met with from them.'—His own life, p. 15.

Though Mr Hume believed the disease which afflicted him was to carry him off the stage of life, as we are informed by a letter from the late most ingenious and excellent Dr Adam Smith to William Strahan, Esq; (of the latter of whom he had such a favourable opinion, that he left him the charge, with discretionary powers, of all his manuscripts, some of which, and particularly that of his own life, were afterwards published;) yet he was prevailed upon, by the entreaties of his friends, to try what might be the effects of a journey. He, accordingly, about the end of April 1776, set out for London; and when he came the length of Morpeth, he met with Dr Adam Smith, and Mr John Home*, a gentleman well known for his poetical genius, and particularly for his theatrical writings. These two gentlemen were on their road from London expecting to find Mr Hume at Edinburgh. Mr Hume returned with him, and 'attended him,' Mr Smith tells us, 'during the whole of his stay in England, with that care and attention which might be expected from a temper so perfectly friendly and affectionate' †.

Mr Hume's disease seemed to yield a little to exercise and change of air; for, when he arrived in London, he was apparently in much better health than when he left Edinburgh. He was advised to go to Bath and drink the waters, which, for some time, had so good an effect upon him, that he began to have some hopes of recovering his health. His former symptoms, however, returned with their usual violence. From that moment, he relinquished all hopes of the continuation of life, and of ease. But he submitted to his fate with the utmost cheerfulness and complacency. When he returned to Edinburgh, though he found himself much weaker, his spirits never failed him. His cheerfulness was so great, and his conversation and amusements continued so much in their accustomed strain, that, notwithstanding many bad symptoms, few of his friends could believe his dissolution to be so fast approaching. Dr Dundas, when taking leave of Mr Hume one day, said to him, 'I shall tell your friend Colonel Edmonstone, that I left you much better, and in a fair way of recovery.'—'Doctor,' Mr Hume replied, 'as I believe you would not chuse to tell any thing but the truth, you had better tell him, that I am dying as fast as my enemies, if I have any, could wish, and as easily and cheerfully as my best friends could desire' ‡.

* The Author often mentioned as a curious circumstance, that he had the honour of being acquainted with all the literary men, of his time, in Scotland, except the ingenious Mr John Home.

† Dr Smith's Letter to Mr Strahan.

‡ Ibid.

Soon afterwards, Colonel Edmonſtone went to ſee Mr Hume, and to take a laſt farewell of him. But, on his way home, he could not refrain from writing a letter, bidding him once more an eternal adieu. Such were Mr Hume's magnanimity and fortitude of mind, that his moſt intimate and affectionate friends knew they hazarded no offence in talking or writing to him as a dying man. Mr Adam Smith happened to call upon Mr Hume when he was reading Col. Edmonſtone's letter, which he immediately ſhowed to Mr Smith. After peruſing this letter, Mr Smith remarked, that appearances were againſt Mr Hume; ſtill, however, he ſaid, your cheerfulneſs is ſo great, and your ſpirit of life ſo ſtrong, that I muſt entertain ſome faint hopes of your recovery. Mr Hume anſwered, 'Your hopes are groundleſs. An habitual *diarrhœa*, of more than a year's ſtanding, would be a very bad diſeaſe at any age. At my age, it is a mortal one. When I lie down in the evening, I feel myſelf weaker than when I roſe in the morning; and, when I riſe in the morning, weaker than when I lay down in the evening. I am ſenſible, beſides, that ſome of my vital parts are affected, ſo that I muſt ſoon die.*' Mr Smith replied, 'If it muſt be ſo, you have at leaſt the ſatisfaction of leaving all your friends, your brother's family in particular, in great proſperity.†' Mr Hume ſaid, he felt that ſatisfaction ſo ſenſibly, that, a few days before, when reading Lucian's Dialogues of the Dead, among all the excuſes which are uſually made to Charon by ſouls who are backward to be ferried in his boat over the river Styx, he could not find one that ſuited him. He had no houſe to furniſh, no children to provide for, nor any enemies upon whom he willed to be revenged. 'I could not well imagine,' ſaid he, 'what excuſe I could make to Charon, in order to obtain a little delay. I have done every thing of conſequence which I ever meant to do, and I could at no time expect to leave my relations and friends in a better ſituation than that in which I am now likely to leave them: I, therefore, have all reaſon to die contented.'

He then amuſed himſelf with inventing ſome whimſical excuſes, which he ſuppoſed he might make to Charon, and with imagining the ſurly anſwers which it might ſuit the character of Charon to return to them. 'Upon further conſideration,' ſaid he, 'I thought I might ſay to him, Good Charon, I have been correcting my works for a new edition. Allow me a little time that I may ſee how the public receives the alterations.' But Charon would anſwer, 'When you have ſeen the effect of theſe, you will be for making other alterations. There will be no end of ſuch excuſes; ſo, honeſt friend, pleaſe ſtep into the boat.' But Mr Hume ſaid, I might ſtill urge, 'Have a little patience, good Charon, I have been endeavouring to open the eyes of the public. If I live a few years longer, I may have the ſatisfaction of ſeeing the downfal of ſome of the prevailing ſyſtems of ſuperſtition.' But Charon would then loſe all temper and decency.—'You loitering rogue, that will not happen theſe many hundred years. Do you fancy I will grant you a leaſe for ſo long a term? Get into the boat this inſtant, you lazy loitering rogue!'

Though Mr Hume frequently talked of his approaching diſſolution with great eaſe, he never affected to make a parade of his magnanimity. He never mentioned the ſubject but when the converſation naturally ſuggeſted it. Mr Hume had now become ſo weak, that the company of his moſt intimate companions fatigued him; for his cheerfulneſs was ſtill ſo great, his complaiſance and ſocial diſpoſition were ſtill ſo entire, that, when any

* Dr Smith's Letter to Mr Strahan.

† Ibid.

† Ibid.

friend

friend was with him, he could not refrain from talking more, and with greater exertion, than the weakneſs of his body could eaſily ſuſtain. Mr Smith, therefore, agreed, at Mr Hume's deſire, to leave Edinburgh, and go to live in Kirkcaldy with his mother, who then reſided in that town. The ingenious and well known Dr Black, profeſſor of chymiſtry in the univerſity of Edinburgh, undertook occaſionally to write Mr Smith an account of the ſtate of his friend's health. Accordingly, on the 22d of Auguſt, Dr Black wrote Mr Smith the following letter: 'Since my laſt, Mr Hume has paſſed his time pretty eaſily, but is much weaker. He ſits up, goes down ſtairs once a-day, and amuſes himſelf with reading, but ſeldom ſees any body. He finds, that even the converſation of his moſt intimate friends fatigues and oppreſſes him; and it is happy that he does not need it, for he is quite free from anxiety, impatience, or low ſpirits, and paſſes his time very well with the aſſiſtance of amuſing books.'

(To be continued.)

SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF GENERAL WASHINGTON.

Continued from page 152.

IT is hardly neceſſary to ſay, that the courage which flowed from honeſty, was tempered in its exerciſe by humanity. The character of Waſhington was not deformed by any of thoſe furious paſſions which drive men to ferocity. His military life was unſtained by military cruelty, and if we lamented the ſeverity of ſome of his acts, we never were at liberty to queſtion their juſtice. It would be unjuſt to aſcribe the mildneſs of the American war excluſively to the perſonal character of Waſhington. It muſt be imputed in a great meaſure to the ſobriety and moderation of the national temper. Never was a civil war ſo ſpotleſs as that which unhappily broke out between the two nations of the Engliſh race. Not a ſingle maſſacre, not a ſingle aſſaſſination, no ſlaughter in cold blood tarniſhed the glory of conqueſt or aggravated the ſhame of defeat. Gallantry and humanity characterized this conteſt between two nations, who amidſt all the fierceneſs of hoſtility ſhewed themſelves worthy of each other's friendſhip.

It is extremely remarkable, that though there never was a civil conteſt diſgraced by ſo few violent or even ambiguous acts as the American war, yet ſo pure were the moral ſentiments of Waſhington, that he could not look back to the period of hoſtilities with unmixed pleaſure. An Italian nobleman, who viſited him after the peace, had often attempted, in vain, to turn the converſation to the events of the war. At length he thought he had found a favourable opportunity of effecting his purpoſe; they were riding together over the ſcene of an action where Waſhington's conduct had been the ſubject of no ſmall animadverſion. Count ——— ſaid to him, "Your conduct, Sir, in this action has been criticized." Waſhington made no anſwer, but clapped ſpurs to his horſe; after they had paſſed the field, he turned to the Italian and ſaid, "Count ———, I obſerve that you wiſh me to ſpeak of the war. It is a converſation which I always avoid. I rejoice at the eſtabliſhment of the liberties of America: But the time of the ſtruggle was a horrible period, in which the beſt men were compelled to do many things repugnant to their nature."

So fatal are even the mildeſt civil commotions to men's morals, and ſo admirable was the temperament of the man who had too much magnanimity, not to take up arms at the call of his

country, and yet too delicate a purity to dwell with complacency on the recollection of ſcenes which, though they were the ſource of his glory, allowed more ſcope for the diſplay of his talents than for the exerciſe of his humanity?

The concluſion of the American war permitted Waſhington to return to theſe domeſtic ſcenes, from which but a ſenſe of duty ſeems to have had the power to draw him. But he was not allowed long to enjoy this privacy. The ſupreme government of the United States, haſtily thrown up, in a moment of turbulence and danger, as a temperary fortification againſt anarchy, proved utterly inadequate to the preſervation of a general tranquillity and permanent ſecurity. The confuſions of civil war had given a taint to the morality of the people which rendered the reſtraints of a juſt and vigorous government more indiſpenſably neceſſary. Confiſcation and paper money, the two greateſt ſchools of rapacity and diſhoneſty in the world, had widely ſpread their poiſon among the Americans. One of their own writers tells us, that the whole ſyſtem of paper money was a ſyſtem of public and private frauds. In this ſtate of things, which threatened the diſſolution of morality and government, good men ſaw the neceſſity of concentrating and invigorating the ſupreme authority. Under the influence of this conviction, a convention of delegates was aſſembled at Philadelphia, which ſtrengthened the bands of the Federal Union, and beſtowed on Congreſs theſe powers which were neceſſary for the purpoſes of good government. Waſhington was the preſident of this convention, as he, in three years after, was elected preſident of the United States of America, under what was called "the New Conſtitution," though it ought to have been called a *reform* of the republican government, as that republican government itſelf was only a *reform* of the antient colonial conſtitution under the Britiſh crown. None of theſe changes extended ſo far as an attempt to new-model the whole ſocial and political ſyſtem.

There is nothing more ſtriking in the whole character of General Waſhington, and which diſtinguiſhes him more from other extraordinary men, than the circumſtances which attended his promotion and retreat from office. Unſought elevation and cheerful retreat are almoſt peculiar to him. He eagerly courted privacy, and only *ſubmitted* to exerciſe authority as a public duty. The promotions of many men are the triumph of ambition over virtue. The promotions, even of good men, have generally been eagerly fought by them from motives which were very much mixed. The promotions of Waſhington alone, ſeem to have been victories gained by his conſcience over his taſte. His public virtue did not need the ambiguous aid of ambition to urge its activity. We do not affirm that all ambition is to be condemned; it is perhaps neceſſary to ſtimulate the ſluggiſhneſs of human virtue. Thoſe who avoid the public ſervice from an epicurean love of pleaſure and of eaſe, from the fear of danger, from inſenſibility to honeſt fame, are not ſo much to be praiſed for their exemption from ambition as to be deſpiſed for baſer vices. But though it be mean to be *below* ambition, it is a proof of unſpeakable greatneſs of mind to be *above* it. This elevation the mind of Waſhington had reached; and unleſs we are greatly deceived, he will be found to be a ſolitary example of ſuch exalted magnanimity. To deſpiſe what all other men purſue; to ſhew himſelf equal to the higheſt places without ever ſeeking any; and to be as active and intrepid from public virtue alone, as others are under the influence of the moſt reſtleſs ambition; theſe are the noble peculiarities of the character of Waſhington.

Events occurred during his chief magiſtracy, which convulſed the whole poli-

political world, and which tried moſt ſeverely his moderation and prudence. The French Revolution took place.

Both friends and enemies have agreed in ſtating that Waſhington, from the begining of that revolution, had no great confidence in its beneficial operation. He muſt indeed have deſired the abolition of deſpotiſm, but he is not to be called the enemy of liberty if he dreaded the ſubſtitution of a more oppreſſive deſpotiſm. It is extremely probable that his wary and practical underſtanding, inſtructed by the experience of popular commotions, augured little good from the daring ſpeculations of inexperienced viſionaries. The progreſs of the revolution was not adapted to cure his diſtruſt, and when, in the year 1793, France, then groaning under the moſt intolerable and hideous tyranny, became engaged in war with almoſt all the governments of the civilized world, it is ſaid to have been a matter of deliberation with the Preſident of the United States, whether the republican envoy, or the agent of the French princes, ſhould be received in America as the diplomatic repreſentative of France. But whatever might be his private feelings of repugnance and horror, his public conduct was influenced only by his public duties. As a virtuous man he muſt have abhorred the ſyſtem of crimes which was eſtabliſhed in France. But as the firſt magiſtrate of the American Commonwealth, he was bound only to conſider how far the intereſt and ſafety of the people whom he governed, were affected by the conduct of France. He ſaw that it was wiſe and neceſſary for America to preſerve a good underſtanding and a beneficial intercourſe with that great country, in whatever manner ſhe was governed, as long as ſhe abſtained from committing injury againſt the United States. Guided by this juſt and ſimple principle, uninfluenced by the abhorrence of crimes which he felt and others affected, he received Mr Genet, the miniſter of the French Republic. The hiſtory of the outrages which that miniſter committed, or inſtigated, againſt the American government, muſt be freſh in the memory of all our readers. The conduct of Waſhington was a model of firm and dignified moderation. Inſults were offered to his authority in official papers, in anonymous libels, by incendiary declaimers, and by tumultuous meetings. The law of nations was trampled under foot. His confidential miniſters were ſeduced to betray him, and the deluded populace were ſo inflamed by the arts of their enemies that they broke out into inſurrection. No vexation however galling, could diſturb the tranquillity of his mind, or make him deviate from the policy which his ſituation preſcribed. With a more confirmed authority, and at the head of a longer eſtabliſhed government, he might have thought greater vigour juſtifiable. But in his circumſtances he was ſenſible that the nerves of authority were not ſtrong enough to bear being ſtrained. Perſuaſion, always the moſt deſireable inſtrument of Government, was in his caſe the ſafeſt. Yet he never overpaſſed the line which ſeparates conceſſion from meanneſs. He reached the utmoſt limits of moderation, without being betrayed into puſillanimity. He preſerved external and internal peace by a ſyſtem of mildneſs, without any of thoſe virtual confeſſions of weakneſs, which ſo much diſhonour and feeble ſupreme authority. During the whole of that arduous ſtruggle, to a *new magiſtracy*, which in other countries ariſes from ancient habits of obedience and reſpect. The authority of his virtue was more efficacious for the preſervation of America than the legal powers of his office.

(To be continued.)

ANEC-

Quackery.

THE following preamble to an Act of Henry the Eighth, in favour of regular phyſicians and ſurgeons, is not inapplicable to the preſent age of Quackery: "For-as-much-as the ſcience and cunning of phyſic and ſurgery is daily (within this realm) exercised by a great multitude of ignorant perſons, of whom the greater part have no inſight in the ſame, nor in any other kind of learning; ſome alſo *can* (ken, know) no letters on the book, ſo far forth that common artificers, as ſmiths, weavers, and women, boldly and accuſtomably take upon them great cures, in which they partly uſe ſorcery and witchcraft, partly apply ſuch medicines to the diſeaſe, as be very noxious, and nothing meet, to the high diſpleaſure of God, great infamy to the faculty, and the grievous damage and deſtruction of divers of the King's people."

Arts.

A valuable convoy of works of Art has lately arrived at Paris from Italy. Among them are the Pope's Collection of Medals, the vaſes that decorated the library of the Vatican, ſeveral caſes of invaluable MSS. and the oriental types of the Propaganda.

Ruſſian etiquette.

The following facts appear in a late Number of *Le Nord Litteraire*. Lately a lady at Peterſburg, far advanced in pregnancy, who could not alight from her carriage haſtily enough to make her expected obeiſance to his Royal Highneſs the Prince Royal (who was paſſing) made a falſe ſtep, which being followed by a miſcarriage, ſhe loſt her life. Another unfortunate accident has recently happened on a ſimilar occaſion: a gentleman through the delay of his ſervant was obliged to leap from his carriage, by which he broke his leg. The Emperor has lately very humanely ordered, that Ladies *in full dreſs* need not get out of their carriage into the middle of the dirty ſtreets to make their obeiſance; and has intimated that he ſhall be ſatisfied, if they ſimply *make believe* to get out.

Sunday Amuſements in London.

An able calculator eſtimates the number of perſons belonging to the metropolis, who ſpend the Sunday in the adjacent villages, inns, tea-houſes, &c. at two hundred thouſand.

Theſe, he calculates, will ſpend each half a crown, amounting in the whole to twenty-five thouſand pounds. This ſum, he thinks, cannot be thought as exaggerated, when it is conſidered that he has taken the numbers ſo low as 200,000, and the ſum ſpent by each at half a crown.

Twenty-five thouſand pounds multiplied by the number of Sundays in a year give, as the annual conſumption of that *day of reſt*, the immenſe ſum of one million, three hundred thouſand pounds.

Of theſe 200,000 perſons, he calculates the *returning ſituation* as follow;

Sober	50,000
In high glee	90,000
Drunkiſh	30,000
Staggering tipſy	10,000
Muzzy	15,000
Dead drunk	5,000
	200,000

N.B. In the above calculation we think the *numbers* exaggerated, but the *ſum* is, perhaps, under the truth. Much, however, will depend on weather.

ON THE LANGUAGE OF BEASTS.

From Smellie's Philoſophy of Natural Hiſtory.

BY *the langudge of beaſts*, the author warns his readers that he does not mean what is called *articulate* or *artificial* language, but ſuch vocal *founds* as are expreſſive of different feelings, wants, and deſires, by which animals are enabled to communicate particular ſentiments to each other. In oppoſition, he adds, to *artificial* language, the nature of which depends upon convention or agreement, and ſometimes upon mere accident, there is a *natural* language which is common to man, and to moſt of the inferior animals. Men poſſeſs both theſe ſpecies of language; but the brute animals are limited ſolely to natural language. Brutes, by uttering certain ſounds, are enabled to communicate their feelings, whether external or internal, to every individual of the ſame ſpecies. Theſe aſſemblages of inarticulate ſounds are uniformly the ſame, and, contrary to what takes place in the artificial language of man, ſuffer no variation from climate or inſtitution, but are equally intelligible in every diviſion of the globe.

The elephant loves the ſociety of his equals, and can make himſelf to be underſtood by them. Elephants are often obſerved to aſſemble in troops, to act in concert, and again to diſperſe. Theſe movements are not accidental, but produced by certain ſounds and geſtures; and, though they carry on no common operation, this circumſtance may, perhaps, be aſcribed to the want of room, and of tranquillity; for in all countries inhabited by the elephant, men have been very anciently multiplied; he is, therefore, perpetually diſturbed, and no where poſſeſſes peaceably ſufficient ſpace to eſtabliſh ſecure and permanent abodes. Elephants, in a wild ſtate, are neither ſanguinary nor ferocious. Their natural diſpoſitions are gentle, and they never make an improper uſe of their arms or their ſtrength; for they exert their offenſive talents only in defending themſelves, or in protecting their companions. Their manners are ſocial. They commonly march in numerous troops; the eldeſt precede; the young and the feeble are placed in the middle, and thoſe of middle age and full of vigour bring up the rear. The mothers carry the young family embraced in their trunks. This order, however, they obſerve in perilous marches only, as when they intend to paſture on cultivated fields. In the deſerts and foreſts, they travel with leſs precaution, but never ſeparate ſo far as to exceed the poſſibility of receiving aſſiſtance from each other. When alarmed with any dangerous attack, they utter *cries* expreſſive of their ſituation and want of aſſiſtance. The meaning of theſe cries is perfectly underſtood by all the elephants within reach of hearing; and they immediately run with eagerneſs to the relief of their diſtreſſed or apprehenſive companions. When an elephant diſcovers a plentiful paſture, he *calls* to the others, and invites them to partake of his good fortune. From the great ſagacity with which nature has endowed him, he ſoon becomes acquainted with the language, geſtures, and deſires of men. He is, of courſe, eaſily tamed, inſtructed, and rendered ſubmiſſive and obedient. As he is ſtronger, as well as more intelligent than any other animal, his ſervices are more ready, more extenſive, and more uſeful. When the hunters go in queſt of a wild elephant, they carry along with them a tamed female in ſeaſon; and when they imagine themſelves near enough to be heard, her governor makes her utter the *cry* of love. The wild male inſtantly *replies*, and haſtens to join her. She is then made to march toward an incloſure, pitfal, or other ſnare, repeating, from time to time, the ſame al-

luring cry, till he is completely deceived and caught. In a domeſtic ſtate, the elephant ſoon learns to underſtand ſigns, and even the meaning of words, ſounds, and geſtures. He diſtinguiſhes the tones of command, of anger, and of approbation, and regulates his actions accordingly. He never miſtakes the voice of his maſter; but receives his orders with attention, executes them with prudence and alacrity, but without any degree of precipitation; for his movements are always meaſured, and his character ſeems to partake of the gravity of his maſs. After this animal has had time to learn the *language* of his conductor, *words* alone are ſufficient to make him perform what is required of him. The eyes of the elephant, in proportion to the magnitude of his body, are very ſmall, but lively, brilliant, and highly expreſſive of ſentiment. He turns them ſlowly and with mildneſs toward his maſter. When he ſpeaks, the animal regards him with an eye of friendſhip and attention; and his penetrating aſpect is conſpicuous when he wants to anticipate the inclination of his governor. He reflects, deliberates, thinks, and never determines till he has ſeveral times examined, without paſſion or precipitation, the ſign of commands which he ought to obey. As the elephant is naturally moderate and grave, we eaſily read in his eyes, whoſe movements are ſlow, the order and ſucceſſion of his internal affections. The *cry* of the elephant, whether excited by love or other ſenſations, is heard and underſtood at the diſtance of more than a league; but it does not, like the roaring of the lion or tyger, create terror. When the *cornack*, or conductor of the elephant, wiſhes to have ſome laborious office performed, he explains the nature of the operation, and mentions the reaſons which ſhould induce him to obey. If the elephant ſeems reluctant, his conductor promiſes to give him arrack, or ſome other thing of which he is fond. But it is extremely dangerous to break any of theſe promiſes. Many *cornacks* have fallen victims to indiſcretions of this kind. A well authenticated fact, on this ſubject, happened at Dekan. An elephant, from ſome motive of revenge, killed his *cornack*. The man's wife, who beheld the dreadful ſcene, took her two children and threw them at the feet of the enraged animal, ſaying, 'Since you have ſlain my huſband, take my life alſo, as well as that of my children.' The elephant inſtantly ſtopped, relented, and, as if ſtung with remorſe, took up the eldeſt boy with its trunk, placed him on his neck, adopted him for its *cornack*, and would never afterward allow any other perſon to mount it.

Among the larger ſpecies of animals, the *camel*, the *dromedary*, the *horſe*, &c. not only expreſs, by particular ſounds, their own wants or deſires, their pleaſures and pains, but when in a domeſtic ſtate, learn the meaning of *words*, and know diſtinctly how to obey the commands of their maſters. A troop of camels, when travelling in the ſandy deſerts of Africa, after a repoſe, the moment they are *deſired*, bend their knees, and lie down to be again loaded. Theſe gentle and inoffenſive creatures muſt ſuffer much; for, eſpecially when over-loaded, or when too long in want of water, they expreſs their uneaſineſs by uttering the moſt lamentable cries. In marching through the deſert, the camels require neither whip nor ſpur; but when they begin to be tired, their courage is ſupported, and their fatigue is ſoftened, by *ſongs*, or by the ſound of ſome muſical inſtrument. Their conductors relieve each other in ſinging. When time is likely to be too much prolonged, the animals are occaſionally allowed to reſt only about an hour; after which, the ſongs are renewed till they arrive at another reſting place, when they again lie down. In this manner, and by theſe means, the camels, with heavy

heavy loads, perform journies almoſt incredible.

The language of the *horſe* is not extenſive. Mares and geldings neigh leſs frequently than perfect horſes. Their voices alſo are neither ſo deep nor ſo full. In horſes of every kind, whether entire or mutilated, five ſpecies of neighing, expreſſive of different paſſions, are diſtinguiſhable. In the neigh of *joy*, the voice is long protracted, and begins and terminates with ſharp ſounds: the horſe, at the ſame time, flings, but without any inclination to ſtrike. In the neigh of *deſire*, whether proceeding from love or friendſhip, the horſe does not fling, the voice is long continued, and finiſhes with graver tones. The neigh of *anger*, during which he flings and ſtrikes with fury, is very ſharp and ſhort. Neither is the neigh of *fear*, during which he likewiſe flings, longer than that of anger; the voice is grave and hoarſe, and ſeems as if it proceeded entirely from the noſtrils. This neigh has ſome reſemblance to the roaring of a lion. The noiſe expreſſive of *pain* is not properly a neigh, but a kind of groan or ſnorting uttered with a grave tone, and following the alternate motions of reſpiration. It has been remarked, that horſes which neigh moſt frequently, from motives of joy or deſire, are the moſt generous and healthy. The voice of unmutilated horſes is ſtronger than that of geldings or of mares. The female voice, even from the moment of birth, is weaker than that of the male. At two, or two and a half years, which is their age of puberty, the voices of both males and females, as in man and moſt animals, becomes ſtronger, and more grave. In that large and thinly peopled country, comprehended between the rivers Don and Nieper, in the Ukraine, and among the Coſſacks, the wild horſes aſſociate in troops of three, four, or five hundred. The conduct and behaviour of theſe troops ſeems to indicate, that men are not the only animals who live in ſociety, and obey, by compact, the commands of one of their own number. Each of theſe troops have a chief, to whom they give implicit obedience. By geſtures, movements, and *voice*, he directs their courſe, and makes them proceed or ſtop at his pleaſure. When the troop is attacked by robbers, or by wolves, this chief likewiſe gives *orders* for the neceſſary arrangements and actions. He is extremely vigilant and alert, runs frequently round the troop, and, when he finds any horſes out of their rank, or lagging behind, he commands and obliges them to take their proper ſtations. Theſe animals, without being mounted or conducted by men, march nearly in as good order as our trained cavalry. Though at perfect liberty, they paſture in files and brigades, and form different companies, without even mixing or ſeparating. The chief occupies this important and laborious office four or five years. When he becomes weaker, and, of courſe, leſs active, another horſe, ambitious of command, and who is conſcious of his own ſtrength, ſprings out from the troop, attacks the old chief, who, if not vanquiſhed, keeps his command; but, if beat, he enters, with evident marks of ſhame and regret, into the common herd. The conqueror inſtantly takes the lead, is recognized as ſovereign, and obeyed by the whole troop.

With regard to the *ox* kind, their language is very limited. The bull ſeldom bellows but when he invites the female, and the female perfectly underſtands what he utters. When ſtrangers appear in his paſture grounds, he eyes them with ſuſpicion, utters deep-toned murmurs, aſſumes a threatening aſpect, and ſometimes runs furiouſly at the intruders. Theſe menacing tones and geſtures are not, as generally imagined, indications of a natural ferocity of diſpoſition. On the contrary, they are the expreſſions

of heroiſm and gallantry. By the ſounds he utters, the females are alarmed, and put upon their guard. They approach near him, and regard him as their protector and champion. The lowings of the cow proceed oftener from terror or timidity than from any other cauſe; and pain, hunger, or the abſence of the mother, produce the complaints of the calf.

Sheep have been repreſented by the count de Buffon, and by many other natural hiſtorians, as the moſt ſtupid of all quadrupeds. This charge, however, ſeems not to be altogether juſt. In a ſtate of ſubjection, individuals ſeldom reſiſt the attacks of an enemy. But they ſoon learn that their protection lies in the ſhepherd and his dog: for, when it is neceſſary to watch the flock, in order to prevent the aſſault of wolves, foxes, or dogs, upon the firſt alarm, the whole run with violence to the place where the watchmen are ſtationed. On other occaſions they never chooſe to make a very near approach either to men or dogs; but the ſenſe of immediate danger remove their uſual timidity, and their ſagacity teaches them where to ſeek protection. Theſe aſſociated movements are affected both by imitation and by peculiar *cries*, or bleatings, expreſſive of alarm and of danger; for though a very few individuals only perceive the common enemy, yet, by motion and language, the intimidating ſentiment is in a moment communicated to the whole. When the female loſes, or is robbed of her lamb, ſhe *cries* in a manner ſtrongly expreſſive of the anguiſh ſhe feels. In the eagerneſs of her ſearch, the loudneſs of her complaints, and her deſultory movements, her eyeballs ſeem to ſtart from their ſockets; and her irregular and diſtracted motions and diſtortions, joined to the violence and conſtancy of her bleatings, are evident indications of the moſt pungent grief. A young lamb, when it wanders from its mother, in the midſt of the moſt numerous flocks, runs precipitately about, and *cries* in pitiable tones. Theſe *cries* the mother recognizes, diſtinguiſhes them to be thoſe of her own offſpring, and inſtantly joins the lamb; their congreſs is attended with mutual expreſſions of the greateſt joy.

With regard to mental and corporeal powers, the *goat* it much ſuperior to the ſheep. He approaches man ſpontaneouſly, and is eaſily rendered familiar. He is fond of careſſes both by the hand and by *words*, and is capable of a conſiderable degree of attachment to thoſe with whom he is familiar. When kept like dogs or cats, in a domeſtic ſtate, the whole powers of the goat are called forth. He utters *ſounds* expreſſive of all his deſires, and underſtands, in a limited degree, what is ſaid to him by any of the family, as well as by all thoſe who live in the neighbourhood. When he has remained ſome time in this ſtate, his natural talents are unfolded and improved in a high degree. He knows perſonally every man, woman, child, and dog, within his uſual range. His natural genius, which is bold and adventurous, when improved by domeſtication, renders him often frolicſome, and even petulant. But, except to ſtrangers, he is ſeldom ſeriouſly miſchievous.

The natural ſagacity and talents of the *dog* are well known, and juſtly celebrated. But when theſe are improved by aſſociating with man, and by education, he becomes, in ſome meaſure, a rational being. The ſenſes of the dog, particularly that of ſcenting diſtant objects, give him a ſuperiority over every other quadruped. He reigns at the head of a flock, and his *language*, whether expreſſive of blandiſhment or of command, is better heard and better underſtood than the voice of his maſter. Safety, order, and diſcipline, are the effects of his vigilance and activity. Sheep and cattle are his ſubjects. Theſe he conducts

ducts and protects with prudence and bravery, and never employs force against them, except for the preservation of peace and good order. But when in purſuit of his prey, he makes a complete diſplay of his courage and intelligence. In this ſituation, both his natural and acquired talents are exerted. As ſoon as the *horn*, or the *voice* of the hunter is heard, the dog demonſtrates his joy by the moſt expreſſive emotions and *accents*. By his movements and *cries*, he announces his impatience for combat, and his his paſſion for victory. Sometimes he moves ſilently along, reconnoitres the ground, and endeavours to diſcover and ſurprize the enemy. At other times, he traces the animal's ſteps, and, by different modulations of *voice*, and by the movements, particularly of his tail, indicates the *diſtance*, the *ſpecies*, and even the *age* of the fugitive deer. All theſe movements and modifications of *voice*, are perfectly underſtood by experienced hunters. When he wiſhes to get into an apartment, he comes to the door; but if that is ſhut, he ſcratches with his feet, makes a bewailing *noiſe*, and if his petition is not ſoon anſwered, he barks with a peculiar and humble *tone*. The ſhepherd's dog not only underſtands the language of his maſter, but, when too diſtant to be *heard*, he knows how to act by ſignals made with the hand.

The ſenſes of the *fox* are equally good as thoſe of the *wolf*; but his ſentiments are more delicate, and the organs of his voice more pliant, which enables him to uſe a more extenſive *language*. The wolf utters only frightful howlings; but the fox barks in different tones, yelps, and raiſes a mournful cry, ſomething reſembling that of the peacock. He varies his tones according to the different ſentiments with which he happens to be affected. He employs an *accent* peculiar to the chace, to the tone of deſire, of complaint, and of ſorrow. He has another *cry*, expreſſive of acute pain, which he utters only when he is ſhot, or has ſome of his limbs broken. His yelping is a ſpecies of barking, and conſiſts of a quick ſucceſſion of tones; at the termination of which he generally raiſes his voice ſimilar to the cry of the peacock.

The language of the *cat* is more limited than that of the dog. Still, however, it is highly expreſſive of her feelings and deſires. When ſhe wants to flatter, or ſolicit favour, ſhe makes a *purring* noiſe, accompanied with blandiſhing movements, and often rubs her ſides upon the ſhins or garments of the perſon from whom ſhe expects gratification. Her noiſe in matters of gallantry is too well known for its hideouſneſs. When a cat happens to be barred out, her *mew* of anxiety, or her petition to get admittance, is perfectly different from moſt of her other cries, but ſeems to be the ſame with that which ſhe utters when deſirous of food.

The *roe-buck* bellows not ſo frequently, nor with ſo loud, or ſo ſtrong a voice, as the ſtag. The young ones utter a ſhort and plaintive cry, *mi---mi*, by which they indicate the want of food. This ſound is eaſily imitated; and the mother deceived by the well known *call*, often comes up to the very muzzle of the hunter's gun, and falls a victim to her maternal affection.

With regard to the *orang-outang*, the various ſpecies of *apes* and *monkeys*, their conformation gives many of them a near reſemblance in external figure to that of man. From this circumſtance, they are enabled to imitate almoſt every human action. Linnæus, and ſome other authors, have even gone the length of affirming, that the orang-outang *ſpeaks* with a kind of hiſſing voice. But we have no proper evidence of this ſuppoſed fact. On the contrary, the count de Buffon, who often examined the ſmaller ſpecies of orang-outang, denies that this animal ever uttered any ſounds which

had

had the moſt diſtant reſemblance to articulate language. By the mode of chattering, and other ſounds, however, any perſon may ſoon learn their particular intentions and emotions. Battell, who deſcribes the largeſt ſpecies of orang outang, tells us that 'they cannot *ſpeak*, and have no more underſtanding than a beaſt.' By *ſpeech*, in this paſſage, Battell evidently means *articulate* language; and this very circumſtance is, perhaps, more than figure and manners, the ſtrongeſt characteriſtic which diſtinguiſh mankind from the brute creation. The count de Buffon has collected, from the moſt authentic travellers, a great number of facts concerning the general manners and ſagacity of the two ſpecies of orang-outangs; but it appears he has not been able to obtain much information as to their language, or modes of expreſſing their paſſions and ſentiments. Notwithſtanding the great ſimilarity between the form and organization, both external and internal, of the orang-outang, and the general ſtructure of man, yet he cannot lay claim to humanity. Though he has the ſame organs of *ſpeech*, he never attempts to *articulate*. The figure and proportions of his brain are likewiſe the ſame; but he diſcovers no extent of thought. There cannot, M. de Buffon properly remarks, be a more evident proof, than is exhibited in the orang-outang, that matter alone, though perfectly organized, can produce neither language nor extenſive thinking, unleſs it be animated by minds ſuperior to thoſe of brutes.

The *pigmies* are very numerous in the mountains of Mauritania, Conſtantia, and Bugia. We are informed by Marmol, that they live upon herbs, corn, and fruits; that in their depredatory expeditions, they go in troops to rob the gardens or fields; but before leaving the woods or thickets, one of them aſcends a high tree, or ſome eminence, from which he takes a ſurvey of the country, and when he obſerves no perſon in the way, he gives the ſignal by a *cry*, which is perfectly underſtood, that the troop may proceed with ſafety, and leaves not his ſtation as long as his companions are foraging abroad. But whenever he perceives any perſon approaching, he *ſcreams*, with a loud and intelligible *voice*, warning the robbers of their danger, when the whole, by leaping from tree to tree, fly off, and make their eſcape to the mountains.

In Senegal, many other ſpecies of apes, baboons, and monkeys, when robbing orchards or corn-fields, obſerve a ſimilar conduct with that of the pigmies. One of them, on theſe occaſions, ſtands centinel on a tree, liſtening and looking about on all ſides, while the others are buſy in collecting the booty. When the ſentinel deſcries any perſon, he inſtantly, by loud and ſignificant *ſhrieks*, alarms the foraging troop, who obey the ſignal, and fly off with their prey.

The *ouarines*, a large ſpecies of American monkeys, are diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of *preachers*. Marcgrave, in his hiſtory of Brazil, relates the following facts concerning theſe preacher monkeys, which, he aſſures us, he himſelf often witneſſed. The facts are, that every morning and evening the *ouarines* aſſemble in the woods; that one of them aſſumes a more elevated ſtation, and makes a ſignal with his hand for the others to ſit around and liſten to him; that, when they are all ſeated, he begins a *diſcourſe* ſo loud and rapid as to be heard at a great diſtance; that all the reſt keep the moſt profound ſilence; that, when he ſtops, he gives a ſignal with his hand for the others to reply; that, in an inſtant, the whole *cry* together, till he commands ſilence by another ſignal, which they, in a moment, obey; that the firſt reſumes his *harangue*, and that, after hearing him attentively for a conſiderable time, the aſſembly breaks up. It were to be wiſhed that Marcgrave had endeavoured to diſcover

cover the intention of these *field-preachings*; for if the circumstances he relates be true, and I know no objection to his veracity, it is evident that the animals must be actuated by some peculiar motives. These *harangues*, perhaps, may, like our houses of parliament, have some common interest for their object, and contain directions for the most prudent modes of accomplishing their purposes.

ON THE SPIRIT OF PLAY.

An Essay, from the Pen of Mr Boyd, the supposed Author of Junius.

'Effodiuntur opes, irritamenta malorum.' OVID.

Then gold's dug up, the source of every ill.

HAVING taken occasion in some of my periodical observations, to animadvert on the mode of employing time, I had the satisfaction, a few evenings ago, of hearing the subject brought into consideration in a company of gentlemen well qualified to judge. The spirit of this conversation I do not know that I can more agreeably give, than by allusion to the characteristic titles of the personages who composed the immortal club of the Spectator: as it happened fortunately that the company consisted, though on a smaller scale (my friends will excuse me) of many of the professional characters that constituted that distinguished society.

I must premise, as a proof of the freedom and impartiality with which the conversation flowed, unclogged by any prospect or apprehension of its appearing in print, that my *short face* was by no means so readily recognized as that of the illustrious author, whose personages I presume to borrow.

The gentleman who began the subject, we will take the liberty to distinguish by the name of colonel Sentry: who, though he had not fought in the campaigns of the duke of Marlborough, was not unknown to the service: and who has enjoyed much of his life with those who were an honour to that honourable profession. He appeared to have rather more years and experience than some of his friends near him: which obtained him their obliging and friendly attention.

'Few things have surprised me more,' said the colonel, 'than the universal *spirit of play* which I have observed to prevail in all ranks and professions of men: even some of those which are generally reputed the most respectable. Trade, for instance, seems often to partake deeply of it: or, indeed, to be nearly congenial. Happily, improper examples of either occur rarely in this country (India): you will give me leave, therefore, to appeal to Old England, where you must remember to have seen old gamblers tottering to the Alley and to 'Change, with as eager anxiety, and on as hazardous hope, as animates the young spendthrift in St James' street: while the coachmen and footmen of both are as busy in their subordinate station, in the lobby or the ale-house, engaging for less, tho' not less engaged, than their masters. Not intending, however, to make the question too wide a ground, let us observe the effects of this passion on social manners. In that point of view, without any over-strained compliment to our present society, let us only suppose an impartial person, or a well-informed man, if you will, to consider the manner in which we pass our evening: and to compare it with the fashionable mode in which a set of people, for I cannot consent to give them the name either of company or society, form themselves into hostile array, make ready with their purses and bank-notes, drawn up round the gaming-table, for mutual plunder, and carry on the civil war. For my own

part,

part, I have ſo much inſtruction from my friends, Sir Andrew Freeport, and the Templar, and ſo much elegant knowledge of the *bon ton* from my neighbour,' (William Honeycomb returned a moſt polite bow) 'that I would not exchange my preſent advantage for the happineſs of winning a thouſand pounds, even from the beſt friend I have in the world.'

When Mr Honeycomb obſerved that the colonel had completely concluded his remark (for, however impatient he was to reply, no temptation could induce him to any thing like interruption) 'I am as much ſurpriſed,' ſaid he, 'as my friend the colonel can be: but not on the ſame ground. I am aſtoniſhed, I confeſs, that a perſon of his *ſcavoir vivre*, *un homme du monde*, can entertain ſuch antediluvian ideas. Aſſuredly, the compliment he has been pleaſed to expreſs to our ſociety, demands in juſtice more than a return on our part: for nothing, certainly, can be more to our advantage than hearing him. It is, as *Spec.* ſays, ſhortly, but emphatically, *utile dulce*. But I hope our friend will have the goodneſs to remember the pleaſure of variety: which, though I do not pretend to be a profound logician, I ſuppoſe is the ſame thing as variety of pleaſure. Sameneſs of enjoyment, whatever be the ſubject, muſt pall upon the ſenſe, as an elegant author has it: and muſt terminate in that moſt ſhocking of all ſenſations, or, if I may be allowed to ſay, no ſenſation, *ennui*. On the contrary, after edifying on the diſcuſſion of revenues and commerce of this mighty country, and admiring the military glories of our gallant heroes, and their graceful laurels; how delightful to change the ſcene!—to enjoy the quick return of the revenues of vingt-un, and the fluctuation of commerce, at the card-table?"

'I beg pardon,' interfered Sir Andrew Freeport, 'I ſhould not have interrupted Mr Honeycomb's wit (another bow) if his alluſion to commerce had not reminded me of a remark that the colonel began with: which, indeed, I thought a little extraordinary from a man of my friend's ſenſe and experience. That the ſpirit of trade ſhould be confounded with the ſpirit of gambling, I confeſs I did not expect to hear brought forward in account, at the cloſe of the eighteenth century. When the credit of the nation ſtands higher, and by the ſame rule the intereſt of money falls lower, both at home and abroad, than at any other period, and when theſe great points have been effected in proportion as trade has been extended, I deſire that the queſtion may be fairly balanced. And it might be left on that ſtatement, without going to any items of calculation. But if, beſides, the different qualities of the ſubjects be conſidered; if it be recollected that commerce civilizes and harmoniſes mankind, unites the different and diſtant nations of the globe into one great whole, and while it relieves the wants of the moſt barbarous, multiplies the enjoyments of the moſt refined, I truſt that no fair arbitrator will bring the nature of trade on the debit ſide, without at leaſt adding, "errors excepted."

The Templar, who loved a game at whiſt, took advantage of Sir Andrew's pauſe, to enter his plea in favour of his clients of the card-club.

'Although,' ſaid the learned advocate, 'I am infinitely obliged by the complimentary opening of the colonel, I muſt beg leave to differ from him in the unqualified extent with which he has laid down his principle. The caſe appears to me to lie in a nut-ſhell, and to be merely this: whether the great ſyſtem of ſociety is to be held an excluſive company of grave reaſoners, prohibiting every amuſement as contraband; or whether an appeal will not ſometimes lie from the common law of converſation, to the chancery of play: or ſtill more directly,

pro-

perhaps, to the equity and practice of the house of lords. It may be considered whether such prohibition of cards be not trenching on Magna Charta, ultimately affecting even the liberty of the press. Restraint of the ingenuity of the mind, in one instance, may grow into precedent for checking it in others: and, in the case of cards, I aver, on the laws of calculation, there are as many neat points as can occur in the courts. Not to take up too much of your time, I shall only cite one. It is from the highest authority; *Hoyle's Reports*, p. 59. A. and C. *versus* B. and D.—a case as curious as any I have met with on the doctrine of power, or even on the subjects of last wills and testaments.—Spades trumps. A. leads the ten: B. plays the deuce.'——The colonel could contain no longer. 'Gentlemen, you give me no quarter. I might have stood my ground against Honeycomb's light troops, or even Sir Andrew's charge; but I must demand a parley, against the learned battery just opened; which, instead of nut-shells, as was promised, attacks me with the heaviest *canon law* I have ever experienced. But I still should rely on the generosity of my enemy; and trust, if the grounds of my argument were fairly understood, you would cease hostilities.' The company observing the colonel look a little grave, pressed him to proceed:—he did, as follows.

'I hope it will not be seriously understood, that in the opinion I offered, it was intended to include any of the cases that have been supposed. Morose, indeed must be the cynic, who would censure with any severity the innocent relaxation from graver subjects, which is found in the gay and elegant circles to which Mr Honeycomb so happily contributes; where the sacredness of female society precludes any possible excess; or in the social club of my learned friend, from whence if we may judge from the specimen he has given us of A. and B. the eloquence of the bar seems by no means excluded. But how could my worthy friend on the other side of the table suppose any allusion to the honourable merchant, when I pointed to the practices of the *pseudo-trader*. In illustration of the just eulogium he has pronounced on his respectable profession, I am sure he will give me leave to quote Lord Chatham's stigma on those who depreciate or disgrace it. "I mean not, my Lords, those muckworms of the alley and vultures of the Exchange, who creep in the dirt of clandestine contracts, or fatten on the carrion of corruption; those pickpockets of the public, who play with the property of the state-creditor, and sport with the mite of the widow, and the orphan's pittance; those swindlers of the state, who sell what they are not possessed of, and purchase what they cannot pay for: I speak, my Lords, of the honest and industrious merchant, whose upright conduct is alike the honour and support of his country: whose ships are seen whereever seas can bear, or winds can waft them; the various streams of whose commerce, returning in full tides of wealth, water the country with opulence."—

'The desire of gain, it must be confessed, is a very general, if not an universal principle, qualified with the exception of some philosophical instances, which only prove the rule. But the honourable pursuit of fortune, is not only a praise, but a duty: and it would be extreme injustice to confound the fair fruits of genius and industry, with the spoils of cunning; or attribute the principles of vice, to the practice of virtue.

'Yet how shall we distinguish virtue from vice, honour from dishonour, or right from wrong, in the conduct of a man devoted to play? The barriers set up by reason and religion, between the duties and the crimes of men, in every other instance, sacred and eternal in the estimation of mankind,

kind, ſeem to be borne down and annihilated by the force of this extraordinary paſſion. I do not ſpeak of the profeſſed and decided gambler. In his uniform mind, there is none of either the diſtinction or confuſion that I have mentioned. It preſents a *carte noire* of infamy, undiſturbed by a ſingle ray of any virtue. My poſition applies to the unhappy inſtances of noble minds, debaſed by this ignoble vice: of men of honour, diſhonouring every high quality they poſſeſs, by this vile paſſion;—whoſe hearts not only pure and ſpotleſs, but glowing with every generous ſentiment, are infected alone by this fatal gangrene, which benumbs every feeling while it predominates, and deadens the circulation and action of every virtuous affection. How ſhall this paradox of the human mind be accounted for? Is it poſſible to reconcile the contradiction, of oppoſite principles exiſting together in the ſame breaſt; of contrary affections in the ſame heart, and thoſe of the moſt powerful nature too. Friendſhip and enmity, eager each to act "up to the very height of its bent": but both, to the ſlaves of accident, and directed to action indifferently, as chance ſhall call forth the one or the other?

'I ſhall ſuppoſe, for inſtance, two men, connected by the cloſeſt ties of friendſhip, and differing only in one point: Orgaſtes is ſmitten by love of play; the paſſion of Eugenius is for the felicity he finds at home in his family. The nights of Orgaſtes are paſſed at the gaming table, while Eugenius repoſes on the boſom of conjugal happineſs. Yet is not the latter averſe from the amuſements of moderate play, the *jeu de ſociété* of a friendly party. Orgaſtes invites him to one of his friendly parties on a little country excurſion. He leaves his happy home with reluctance; but appoints a ſpeedy return to happineſs, heightened by a ſhort abſence. They proceed: and Eugenius is delighted with the wit and eloquence of his friend's friends: for they are of the firſt claſs of faſhion and talents. Play is propoſed. Stakes grow high, and Eugenius heſitates: but ſoon ſtimulated by example, and abſent from the happy reſource to which he would have flown if he had been near his home, he is tempted to one throw. The only difficulty is the firſt ſtep: then *facilis deſcenſus Averni*—Eugenius is undone. And by whom?—By his friend Orgaſtes: by him, who, in every other poſſible incident of life, would have ſacrificed himſelf for the other's happineſs.—The friend then will reſtore to the ruined Eugenius the rapine of a gambler?—No—Orgaſtes is plundered in his turn:—and if more exquiſite miſery can be imagined than that of the father and huſband, till that curſt moment, the happieſt that ever enjoyed thoſe titles, it is the lot of Orgaſtes:—for all his friend's woes are heaped upon his head.

'Really, however, it muſt be confeſſed,' continued the colonel, 'are the ſentiments of affection or friendſhip found to flouriſh long in the mind polluted with this paſſion. Habitual intercourſe and participation in ſcenes ſo fatal, gradually weaken the ſprings of ſympathy and pity. For if the frequent ſpectacle of executions be found ſufficient to blunt the feelings of the ſpectators, what reſiduum of tenderneſs ſhall we expect in the breaſt of the executioner?

'On the whole,' continued the colonel, 'whether this pernicious paſſion in exceſs, be conſidered on the ground of virtue or religion, in relation to morals or to manners, it will appear not blacker in its nature than ingratitude, and ſome other odious vices, but infinitely more comprehenſive in its miſchiefs than any, and the cauſe of moſt. More violations of friendſhip, more family afflictions, more fraud and cruelty, more murder, and beyond compariſon, more ſuicide—that laſt completion to vice, from which alone repentance

ance is denied, are directly derived from this source than from any other. It is the parent of vice, and destroyer of virtue.'

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS RELATIVE TO THE WESTERN PARTS OF PENNSYLVANIA,

Particularly those in the neighbourhood of Lake Erie.

BY ANDREW ELLICOTT *.

DEAR SIR,

I TAKE the liberty of transmitting to you the following miscellaneous observations, collected from my notes, relative to Lake Erie and the western country; the perusal of which, I flatter myself, will not be unsatisfactory or uninteresting.

The situation of this Lake is already well known, and therefore a topographical description will here be unnecessary: but a variety of phenomena which attend it, merit a more minute consideration, and cannot fail to engage the attention of the philosopher; phenomena which in all probability are common to all large lakes of fresh water.

In the summer season, fogs are seldom observed on the margin of the Lake. The three summer months that I resided at Presqu' Isle, no fogs were seen during the whole time. The horizon was generally clear, and the stars shone with remarkable lustre. The most common winds here generally resemble the sea and land breezes in the West Indies. From the end of spring till the beginning of autumn, they blow, except at the time of storms, from the Lake upon the land during great part of the day, and from the land upon the Lake during the night: the change generally takes place between the hours of seven and ten in the morning, and about the setting of the sun in the evening. These breezes, alternately blowing in opposite directions, render those situations contiguous to the Lake extremely pleasant during the heat of the summer months, and have most probably a very salutary influence upon the atmosphere.

A strong easterly wind will occasion a considerable depression, and a strong westerly wind a considerable swell, of the waters in Presqu' Isle Bay. In the former case, a portion of the water is driven towards the upper end, and in the latter towards the lower end, of the lake. To these causes we are to attribute those ebbings and flowings, which have so frequently been mistaken for regular tides; for a little reflection will convince one, that the moon can have no sensible effect upon the waters of the lakes. When the wind ceases, the waters return to restore the equilibrium, and an undulation will be visible for several days after those storms, and appears to be but slightly affected by the alternate breezes already mentioned.

In the western country, and especially in the neighbourhood of the lakes, dews are very heavy. On the Ohio and Allegany Rivers, and their numerous branches, fogs are very common, and of remarkable density; they do not, however, appear to contain any portion of those noxious miasmata, which are so frequently combined with the fogs on the eastern side of the mountains; nay, the inhabitants of Pittsburgh consider them as possessed of salubrious qualities. From a variety of observations I am convinced that the atmosphere in the western country, and particularly in the vicinity of the lakes, contains a greater quantity of moisture than in the middle of the Atlantic states. The wooden works which contained my instruments were always uncommonly swelled, and frequently injured, in that country, though constantly defended from the rain, and

* Addressed to Mr Robert Patterson, Vice-President of the American Philosophical Society, and inserted in their Transactions, Vol. IV. lately published.

occaſionally expoſed to the ſun. The ivory and wood of my ſectors with braſs joints, always expanded above the metal: this expanſion was not ſudden, but effected by ſlow degrees. Whether this exceſs of moiſture ariſes from the extenſive foreſts which conſtantly preſerve the earth in a ſtate of humidity, or from more permanent cauſes, future obſervations muſt determine.

Iron is here more ſuſceptible of ruſt, and braſs ſooner tarniſhed, than in the Atlantic ſtates; but this ſuſceptibility of ruſt I obſerved to be greater in the foreſts than in thoſe parts of the country that had been cleared for cultivation, and from theſe circumſtances the probable cauſes is aſcertained.

The ſouthern ſhores of Lake Erie are generally high; in many places, they are perpendicular, and various ſtrata of ſtone are conſiderably elevated above the ſurface of the water. The ſtreams which diſcharge themſelves into the Lake over theſe ſtrata form a great variety of caſcades of a romantic appearance, which increaſe the beauty of the country, and muſt at ſome future period enhance the value of the lands.

At the lower end of the Lake, and for ſome diſtance up it, theſe ſtrata conſiſt of lime-ſtone intermixed with flint and marine petrifactions, but the other ſtrata are generally ſlate and excellent freeſtone. About Preſqu' Iſle there is but little lime-ſtone to be ſeen; it lies in detached pieces, and is likewiſe interſperſed with flint and marine petrifactions.

In a large extent of country on the weſtern ſide of the Allegany Mountains, the ſtrata of ſtone are horizontally diſpoſed, except in ſome places where that poſition has been changed by the undermining of creeks and rivers. In theſe places where the ſtrata have been deprived of their ſupport, they have fallen from their original poſitions, and therefore deviate from the general rule. This law of nature is eſtabliſhed on the ſouth ſide of Lake Erie, but how far weſt of the mountains the ſame obtains, has never yet been aſcertained. The horizontal poſition of the ſtrata on that Lake has a pleaſing effect; the ſofter lamina are worn away by the beating of the waves, the harder remain projected, and at a diſtance reſemble wainſcoting or mouldings.

From the horizontal diſpoſition of theſe ſtrata the following concluſions may be deduced: firſt, that the country has never been diſturbed by thoſe terrible convulſions which a great part of this globe muſt have experienced at ſome remote period of antiquity; and ſecondly, that thoſe naturaliſts are deceived, who ſuppoſe that the ſtrata were originally parallel to the axis of the earth.

Before I conclude my obſervations on this ſubject, I ſhall take the liberty of adding an account of the

Falls of Niagara.

This ſtupendous cataract of water infinitely excels all other natural curioſities of the country, and exhibits a ſpectacle ſcarce equalled in grandeur by any object in the phyſical world. Lake Erie is ſituated upon one of thoſe horizontal ſtrata, in a region elevated about three hundred feet above the country which contains Lake Ontario. The deſcent which ſeparates the two countries, is in ſome places almoſt perpendicular, and the immenſe declivity formed by theſe ſtrata occaſions both the cataract of Niagara and the great falls of Cheneſeco. This remarkable precipice generally runs in a ſouth-weſtern direction from a place near the Bay of Toronto on the northern ſide of Ontario, round the weſtern angle of the Lake; from thence it continues its courſe generally in an eaſtern direction, croſſing the ſtrait of Niagara and the Cheneſeco River, till

till it is lost in the country towards the Seneca Lake.

The waters of this cataract formerly fell from the northern side of the slope, near the landing place; but the action of such a tremendous column of water falling from such an eminence, through a long succession of ages, has worn away the solid stone for the distance of seven miles, and formed an immense chasm which cannot be approached without horror. In ascending the road from the landing to Fort Slauser, the eye is continually engaged in contemplation of the awful and romantic scenes which present themselves, till the transcendent magnificence of the falls is displayed to view, the imagination is then forcibly arrested, and the spectator is lost in silent admiration! Down this awful chasm the waters are precipitated with amazing velocity, after they make the great pitch; and such a vast torrent of falling water communicates a tremulous motion to the earth, which is sensibly felt for some poles round, and produces a sound which is frequently heard at the distance of twenty miles. Many wild beasts that attempt to cross the rapids above this great cataract, are destroyed; and if geese or ducks inadvertently alight in these rapids, they are incapable of rising upon the wing again, and are hurried on to inevitable destruction.

The great height of the banks renders the descent into the chasm extremely difficult; but a person, after having descended, may easily proceed to the base of the falls; and a number of persons may walk in perfect safety a considerable distance between the precipice and the descending torrent, where conversation is not much interrupted by the noise, which is not so great here as at some distance. A vapour or spray of considerable density, resembling a cloud, continually ascends, in which a rainbow is seen when the sun shines, and the position of the spectator is favourable. In the winter this spray attaches itself to the trees, where it is congealed in such quantities as to divest them of their smaller branches, and produces a most beautiful chrystalline appearance; a circumstance which attends the falls of Cheneseco, as well as those of Niagara.

A singular appearance is observed at these falls, which has never perhaps been noticed by any writer. Immediately below the great pitch a commixture of foam and water is puffed up in spherical figures, about the size of a common haycock. They burst at the top, and discharge a column of spray to a prodigious height; they then subside, and are succeeded by others, which exhibit the same appearances. These spherical forms are most conspicuous about midway between the west side of the strait and the island which divides the falls, and where the largest column of water descends. This appearance is produced by the ascension of the air, which is carried down by the column of falling water in great quantities to the bed of the river.

The river at the falls is about seven hundred and forty-three yards wide, and the perpendicular pitch is one hundred and fifty feet in height. In the last half mile, immediately above the falls, the descent of the water is fifty-eight feet; but the difficulty which would attend the business, prevented me from attempting to level the rapids in the chasm below; though, from conjectures, I concluded that the waters must descend at least sixty five feet; and from these results it appears that the water falls about two hundred and seventy-three feet, in the distance of about seven miles and an half.

I am, Sir, with respect,

Your friend,

ANDREW ELLICOTT.

To Robert Patterson.

MF.

MEMORABILIA FOR MARCH.

AMONG the Romans, March was the firſt month; and in ſome eccleſiaſtical computations, that order is ſtill preſerved, as particularly reckoning the number of years from the incarnation of our Saviour; that is from the 25th of March. It was Romulus who divided the year into months; to the firſt of which he gave the name of his ſuppoſed father *Mars*. Ovid, however, obſerves, that the people of Italy had the month of March before the the time of Romulus; but that they placed it very differently, ſome making it the third, ſome the fourth, ſome the fifth, and others the tenth month of the year.

It was in this month that the Romans ſacrificed to Anna Perenna; that they began their *comitia*; that they adjudged their public farms and leaſes; that the miſtreſſes ſerved the ſlaves and ſervants at table, as the maſters did in the Saturnalia; and that the Veſtals renewed the ſacred fire—The month of March was always under the protection of Minerva, and always conſiſted of 31 days. The ancients held it an unhappy month for marriages, as well as the month of May. The moderns have diſcovered no unhappy months for marriage, although now and then we hear of unhappy marriages of not a months duration!

The firſt day of this month is uſually called St David's, and is kept by the Welch, with great feſtivity, in memory of their tutelar ſaint. As there are many who join heartily in the convivial commemoration of this ſaint, who would be puzzled to ſay who or what he was, and as the tutelar ſaint have long been denied a place in our ſyſtems of biography, it may be perhaps new to many of our readers, that St David was born at the latter end of the ſixth century; he was the ſon of Xantus, a prince of Wales, and his mother is ſaid to have been a *nun!* Where he was born is a ſecret, but all agree that he was a perſonage of conſiderable learning and elocution, and very remarkable for the ſtrictneſs and auſterity of his life; in his perſon he was tall, handſome, and well proportioned. He was the firſt biſhop of St Davids, and is ſaid to have continued upon this ſee ſixty five years. He founded twelve monaſteries in the neighbourhood, and died at the advanced age of *one hundred and forty ſix* years! It is ſaid his birth was predicted thirty years before it happened; that he had always an angel, both for guard and converſation; that he gave the Bath waters that extraordinary heat which they ſtill preſerve; and that when once preaching to a numerous congregation, the plain ground ſhot up in their ſight, and mounted to a conſiderable aſcent. As we do not vouch for the accuracy of theſe relations, our readers may believe as far as conviction can reach.

They muſt exerciſe the ſame right in judging of the hiſtory of St Patrick, whoſe day is kept on the 17th of this month, by all the true ſons of Old Ireland. If authors are to be believed, this St Patrick was actually a Scotchman, and born at a place called Kirk Patrick, in Dumbarton. Here he was taken priſoner by certain Iriſh exiles, and carried into Ireland, and here, after making himſelf maſter of the Iriſh language, he made his eſcape, and returned home. About two years after he formed a deſign of converting the Iriſh, which he is ſaid to have completed in thirteen years, no great time for a work of ſuch magnitude. He died in the 120th year of his age, in the year 493. The place of his burial is unknown, and therefore claimed by the Iriſh in Down, by the Engliſh in Glaſtonbury, and by the Scotch in Glaſgow. There is a cave in the county of Donnegal, near the ſource of the Liffey, which is ſaid to have been dug by Ulyſſes, in order to hold converſation with infernals. The preſent inhabitants call it, Patrick's Purga-

tory

gatory, and affirm, that St Patrick, or ſome abbot of that name, obtained of God, by his earneſt prayers, that the pains and torments which await the wicked after this life, might be here ſet forth to view, in order more eaſily to recover the Iriſh from their ſinful ſtate and heatheniſh errors. If there are any who diſbelieve this, or that Ulyſſes had any occaſion to come to Ireland to converſe with infernals, when he might have had them nearer home, it is not in our power to explain the matter farther. We muſt, however, in juſtice add, that the report of St Patrick's having ſwam acroſs the channel with his *head in his teeth*, is doubted by many intelligent perſons!

Of events, concerning which we can ſpeak with more certainty, there are but two that deſerve particular mention; the aſſaſſination of Julius Cæſar, a fact too well known to require recital, and the return of Columbus to Spain in 1493. Columbus was the *real* diſcoverer of America, although it took its name from Americus Veſpucius, who, by the encouragement of the king of Portugal, made in 1497 ſome additional diſcoveries to thoſe of Columbus.

Martial, the celebrated Epigrammatiſt, is ſaid to have been born in this month, although the day cannot be aſcertained. Few men's writings have been criticiſed in more various ways. The genius of Martial, ſays his admirers, was extenſive and lively; no ſubject came amiſs to him, and he was certainly very capable, had the taſte of the times he lived in encouraged it, of keeping up the ſpirit of epigrammatic poetry, without the help of falſe wit. Others have judged of him more harſhly, but he has generally been ſet at the head of his order.

Ovid was likewiſe born in this month.—His works are well known, and his poetical talents have juſtly ranked him among the firſt of Roman poets. It is allowed that he was the beſt-bred gentleman of all the geniuſes of the age he lived in. No man, as Scaliger ſays, ever did or can imitate the eaſineſs of Ovid's ſtyle: his great fault was, that he had too much wit, and too much luxuriancy of fancy, which he either knew not, or had not patience to correct. It muſt alſo be ſaid, that while we do not hear that he had great virtues, we are certain he had great vices, and that many of his verſes tend to the corruption of youth.

Otway, our celebrated dramatic poet, was given to the world in this month. His 'Orphan,' and 'Venice Preſerv'd,' ſufficiently ſpeak his praiſe, but much cannot be ſaid to the praiſe of the age he lived, or rather ſtarved in. His death happened in 1685, 'in a manner,' ſays Dr Johnſon, which I am unwilling to mention. Having been compelled by his neceſſities to contract debts, and hunted, as is ſuppoſed, by the terriers of the law, he retired to a public-houſe on Tower-hill, where he died of want, or, as it is related by one of his biographers, by ſwallowing, after a long faſt, a piece of bread which charity had ſupplied. He went out, as is reported, almoſt naked, in the rage of hunger, and finding a gentleman in a neighbouring coffeehouſe, aſked him for a ſhilling. The gentleman gave him a guinea; and Otway going away, bought a roll, and was choaked with the firſt mouthful.'

The deaths in this month, revive the memory of ſome of the moſt illuſtrious characters in Engliſh hiſtory; Eliſabeth, the queen, and perhaps the wiſeſt female ſovereign that ever ſat on a throne—William III, uſually termed our preſerver from ſlavery and popery—and James I, leſs to be mentioned with reſpect, for he paved the way to the unhappy events of his ſon's reign—Sir Iſaac Newton, one of the moſt celebrated philoſophers and greateſt geniuſes that ever appeared in the world, died on the 20th of this month.

In

In contemplating his genius, says one who knew him well, it becomes a doubt, which of these endowments had the greatest share, sagacity, penetration, strength, or diligence; and after all, the mark that seems most to distinguish it is, that he himself made the justest estimation of it, declaring, that if he had done the world any service, it was due to nothing but industry and patient thought; that he kept the subject, under consideration, constantly before him, and waited till the first dawning opened gradually, by little into a full and clear light.

Two of our most eminent modern architects died in this month, Mr Robert Adam and Sir William Chambers—Somerset-house, the Adelphi, and various other public buildings, will probably hand their names down to posterity. It was also fatal to Boileau, the very celebrated French poet. His 'Art of Poetry,' was of the highest utility to his nation, by diffusing a just way of writing and thinking, banishing every species of false wit, and introducing a general taste for the manly simplicity of the ancients—to Sir John Denham, one of the fathers of English poetry—and Mr Gilbert West, celebrated for his admirable work called 'Observations on the Resurrection;' he was devoted to learning and piety.

Nor must we omit, in this short catalogue, the name of John Wesley, perhaps a more extraordinary character than any we have mentioned—a man who with the *fortune* of an apostle, and the industry of an apostle, by mere dint of industrious preaching and travelling, raised a sect which at various times has been thought formidable even to the church, although it was not his intention that his labours should be otherwise than subservient to it. It has been justly said, that if usefulness be excellence, and if public good is the chief object of attention in public characters, John Wesley will long be remembered as one of the best of men, as he was for more than fifty years the most diligent and indefatigable.

ÆRARIUS.

ACCOUNT OF A NEWLY DISCOVERED SHRUB IN PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND,

WHICH AFFORDS ELASTIC GUM.

IN the last vol. of Asiatic Researches there is an account transmitted by James Howison, Esq; of a certain shrub or plant very much resembling the well-known *Caout Chouk* of America, of which the Indian rubber is formed. Mr Howison reports, that in various excursions into the forests, with which that newly-discovered island is overgrown, it being necessary to clear the way through the underwood with cutlasses, this curious plant being divided, left on the blade of the instrument a substance perfectly similar in its properties to the resinous produce of the Caout Chouk. The principal difference is, that this is a *shrub*, whose tendrils curl round the lofties trees to an inaccessible height, the American production is itself a lofty *tree*, growing plentifully on the banks of the great river Amazons. It is from the milky juice which, after incision, exudes from the plant, that this gummy substance is formed; for, on being exposed to the air, it gradually hardens into a solid consistence, of which gloves, boots, and stockings are formed, which has the singular quality to resist the penetration of any liquid; and, in proof of its being impermeable by water, Mr Howison, having formed a pair of boots of this *elastic gum*, and put them on, stood for a quarter of an hour in a pond, and on coming out, upon pulling them off, found his stockings perfectly dry. One inconvenience, however, Mr H. found, which he has endeavoured to rectify, and that is, after several times wearing, they no long-

er

er retained their original ſhape, but ſhrunk conſiderably. To obviate this diſadvantage, and to lay the baſis of a *future manufacture*, which he is of opinion may be of the higheſt utility, if this plant ſhould be tranſplanted, as it ought to be, into our ſettlements, and cultivated in large plantations, where it would beſt thrive, he tried, and he ſtrongly recommends, the following method; which we inſert, becauſe we conſider it as equally ingenious and ſatisfactory. It may alſo be of material uſe to our domeſtic artiſts, as it is well known, from M. Macquer's experiments on the ſubſtance of the Indian rubber, that it is perfectly ſoluble with a proper mixture of *vitriolic æther*.

"From what I had obſerved of the advantage gained in ſubſtance and uniformity of ſtrength, by making uſe of gunny as a baſis for the ſoles, I was led to ſuppoſe, that if an elaſtic cloth, in ſome degree correſpondent to the elaſticity of the gum, were uſed for boots, ſtockings, gloves, and other articles, where that property was neceſſary, that the defects above mentioned might in a great meaſure be remedied. I accordingly made my firſt experiment with Coſſimbazar ſtockings and gloves.

"Having drawn them upon the wax moulds, I plunged them into veſſels containing the milk, which the cloth greedily abſorbed. When taken out, they were ſo completely diſtended with the gum in ſolution, that, upon becoming dry by expoſure to the air, not only every thread, but every fibre of the cotton had its own diſtinct envelope, and in conſequence was equally capable of reſiſting the action of foreign bodies as if of ſolid gum.

"The firſt coat by this method was of ſuch thickneſs, that for ſtockings or gloves nothing farther was neceſſary. What were intended for boots required a few more applications of milk with the fingers, and were finiſhed as thoſe made with the gum only.

"This mode of giving cloth as a baſis, I found to be a very great improvement; for, beſides the addition of ſtrength received by the gum, the operation was much ſhortened.

"Woven ſubſtances, that are to be covered with the gum, as alſo the moulds on which they are to be placed, ought to be conſiderably larger than the bodies they are intended to fit; for, being much contracted from the abſorption of the milk, little alteration takes place in this diminution in ſize, even when dry, as about one third of the fluid evaporates before the gum acquires its ſolid form.

"Great attention muſt be paid to prevent one part of the gum coming in contact with another while wet with the milk or its whey; for the inſtant that takes place, they become inſeparably united. But ſhould we ever ſucceed in having large plantations of our own vine, or in tranſferring the American tree (which is perhaps more productive) to our poſſeſſions, ſo that milk could be procured in ſufficient quantity for the covering various cloths, which ſhould be done on the ſpot, and afterwards exported to Europe, then the advantages attending this ſingular property of the milk would forever balance its advantages: cloths, and coverings of different deſcriptions, might then be made from this gum cloth, with an expedition ſo much greater than by the needle, that would at firſt appear very ſurpriſing: the edges of the ſeparate pieces only requiring to be wet with the milk, or its whey, and brought into contact, when the article would be finiſhed and fit for uſe. Should both milk and whey be wanting, a ſolution of the gum in either can always be obtained, by which the ſame end would be accompliſhed.

"Of all the cloths upon which I made experiments, nankeen, from the ſtrength and quality of its fabric, appeared the beſt calculated for coating with the gum. The method I followed in performing this, was to lay the cloth ſmooth upon a table, pour the

milk upon it, and with a ruler to ſpread it equally. But ſhould this ever be attemped on a larger ſcale, I would recommend the following plan: To have a ciſtern for holding the milk a little broader than the cloth, to be covered with a croſs bar in the centre, which muſt reach under the ſurface of the milk, and two rollers at one end. Having filled the ciſtern, one end of the piece of cloth is to be paſſed under the bar, and through between the rollers; the former keeping the cloth immerſed in the milk, the latter in preſſing out what is ſuperfluous, ſo that none may be loſt. The cloth can be hung up at full length to dry; and the operation repeated until of whatever thickneſs wanted. For the reaſons above mentioned, care muſt be taken that one fold does not come in contact with another while wet.

"Having obſerved that moſt of the patent catheters and bougies made with a ſolution of the claſtic gum, whether in ether or in the eſſential oils, had either a diſagreeable ſtickineſs, or were too hard to admit of any advantage being derived from the elaſticity of the gum, I was induced to make ſome experiments with the milk towards removing theſe objections.

"From that fluid, by evaporation, I made ſeveral large ſized bougies of pure gum, which, from their over flexibility, were totally uſeleſs. I then took ſome ſlips of fine cloth covered with the gum, which I rolled up until of a proper ſize, and which I rendered ſolid by ſoaking them in the milk, and then drying them. Theſe poſſeſſed more firmneſs than the former, but in no degree ſufficient for the purpoſe intended. Pieces of ſtrong catgut, coated with the gum, I found to anſwer better than either.

"Beſides an effectual cloathing for manufacturers employed with the mineral acids, what had been long a deſideratum, this ſubſtance, under different modifications, might be applied to a number of other uſeful purpoſes in life: ſuch as making hats, great coats, boots, &c. for ſailors, ſoldiers, fiſhermen, and every other deſcription of perſons, who, from their purſuits, are expoſed to wet ſtockings; for invalids, who ſuffer from damps; bathing caps, tents, coverings for carriages of all kinds, for roofs of houſes, trunks, buoys, &c.

"This extraordinary vegetable production, in place of being injured by water, at its uſual temperature, is preſerved by it. For a knowledge of this circumſtance I am indebted to the Chineſe. Having ſome years ago commiſſioned articles made of the claſtic gum from China, I received them in a ſmall jar filled up with water, in which ſtate I have ſince kept them without obſerving any ſigns of decay.

"Should it ever be deemed an object to attempt plantations of the claſtic gum vine in Bengal, I would recommend the foot of the Chittagong, Rajmahal and Baugliper hills, as ſituations where there is every probability of ſucceeding, being very ſimilar in ſoil and climate to the places of its growth on Prince of Wales's Iſland. It would, however, be adviſable to make the firſt trial at this ſettlement, to learn in what way the propagation of the plant might be moſt ſucceſsfully conducted. A further experience may alſo be neceſſary, to aſcertain the ſeaſon when the milk can be procured of the beſt quality, and in the greateſt quantity, with the leaſt detriment to the vine."

AN ACCOUNT OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE ROYAL INSTITUTION OF GREAT BRITAIN.

AN account of an inſtitution which has met with ſo much encouragement from the public, and which promiſes to be attended with advantages ſo important, will not, we truſt, be diſagreeable to our readers; we ſhall, therefore,

therefore, endeavour to lay before them a view of its riſe and progreſs; and ſhall in our ſucceeding numbers, continue to give ſuch information concerning its proceedings as may be thought intereſting to them.

The plan was firſt projected by Count Rumford; and it would ſeem, that for ſome years this active philanthropiſt and philoſopher had contemplated the practicability of the ſcheme, of which he had ſketched a rude outline in a correſpondence with another enlightened and benevolent character, Mr Bernard, treaſurer of the Foundling Hoſpital, a gentleman well known as an active member of the Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor.

The ſlowneſs with which improvements of any kind make their way into common uſe, and eſpecially ſuch improvements as are moſt calculated to be of general utility, had ſtrongly attracted the attention of the Count. The greateſt obſtacles to the improvement of the uſeful arts and manufactures, appeared to be the want of elementary information in them. They can move on in the beaten track in which they have been inſtructed; but for want of a knowledge of the principles on which their reſpective arts depend, they can make no material improvement in them; whereas it was to be preſumed, that if the principles of mechanics and chemiſtry could be taught on an extenſive ſcale, ſo that the knowledge of them might be widely diffuſed, rapid improvements muſt follow.

One great object to be had in view, was therefore to teach, by courſes of philoſophical lectures and experiments the principles of ſcience, and their application to the improvement of arts and manufactures, as well as the common conveniencies of life. Another important object was, facilitating the general introduction of uſeful mechanical inventions and improvements. The beſt mode of attaining this end ſeemed to be, to have public rooms for the exhibition of all ſuch new mechanical inventions and improvements as might be thought worthy of the public notice and more eſpecially of ſuch contrivances as tend to increaſe the conveniencies and comforts of life; to promote domeſtic economy, to improve taſte, and to advance uſeful induſtry. By procuring a collection of the completeſt working models, or conſtructions of the fulleſt ſize, of all ſuch mechanical inventions as were likely to be uſeful, formed on the moſt approved principles; and kept in actual uſe, it was to be preſumed, that the advantage to workmen, who would thus ſee what they were to imitate, would be great.

To complete this grand ſcheme, it was propoſed to publiſh frequently an account of uſeful diſcoveries; not only of thoſe which might be made by the Inſtituuion, and in this country, but in every part of the world. By theſe means, the benefits of the Inſtitution would by no means be confined to the metropolis, but by a quick circulation of uſeful diſcoveries, extend its influence to the remoteſt corner of the Britiſh dominions, and to the whole world. Such is the plan, which, if it required boldneſs of ſpirit to conceive, required a ſtill more enterpriſing mind to think of executing it.

About the beginning of the laſt year, the plan was mentioned among ſome friends, who immediately perceived the advantages which muſt attend it, and entered into its merits with ardour and enthuſiaſm. Theſe communicated to their friends; and every one to whom it was mentioned, was eager to give it his ſupport; in a ſhort time it was countenanced by ſuch members, that it was thought adviſeable to realize the idea, and give it "a habitation and a name."

The firſt regular meeting was held at the houſe of the Preſident of the Royal Society, who has long been eminently diſtinguiſhed as the patron of ſcience, and the promoter of uſeful in-

ventions. Here it received a regular form; a conſiderable ſum of money was ſubſcribed, and a plan drawn up, and directed to be publiſhed.

This was no ſooner done, than ſubſcribers flocked in from all quarters, and the founders perceived that it would ſoon be in their power to conduct their favourite ſcheme on an extenſive ſcale; and as their funds were already reſpectable, they purchaſed an extenſive building in Albemale Street, which they fitted up ſo as to anſwer the preſent purpoſe. It was neceſſary, however, that the ſociety ſhould be incorporated, not only that their property might be ſecure, but that the laws which might be framed for the government of the Inſtitution might be properly enforced. For this purpoſe a petition was preſented to the King, praying that he would grant them a charter of incorporation, with certain rights and privileges as is uſual in ſuch caſes. To this he was not only graciouſly pleaſed to aſſent, but deſired he might be conſidered as the patron of the eſtabliſhment, and that it might be called the Royal Inſtitution. By this charter, which is dated the 30th of January of the preſent year, the members are conſtituted a body politic and corporate, by the name of THE ROYAL INSTITUTION OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The government of the Inſtitution is veſted in a preſident and nine managers. The members of the ſociety conſiſt in three claſſes. 1. Proprietors; 2. Members or ſubſcribers for life; 3. Annual ſubſcribers.

A proprietor is a hereditary governor of the inſtitution, and has a *perpetual transferable* ſhare in the houſe of the inſtitution, and in all the property belonging to it; has a voice in the election of managers and viſitors, and has two *transferable* tickets of admiſſion into the eſtabliſhment, and to all the philoſophical lectures and experiments.

A ſubſcriber for life has one ticket (not transferable) of admiſſion into the eſtabliſhment, and to all the lectures and experiments. The ſame privilege is enjoyed by an annual ſubſcriber during the year of his ſubſcription.

The nine managers are choſen by and from the proprietors by ballot; three of them for three years, three for two years, and three for one year, capable, however, of being re-elected. Beſides the managers, there is a committee of viſitors, to aſſiſt in framing the bye-laws, to inſpect the Inſtitution annually in detail, and to examine and audit the accounts of the receipts and diſburſements of the Inſtitution; this committee is compoſed alſo of nine perſons, choſen by and from the proprietors of the Inſtitution; three for three years, three for two years, and three for one year, capable of being re-elected. The preſident has the privilege of nominating two of the managers as vice-preſidents; a treaſurer and ſecretary are choſen from among the proprietors.

AN EXTRACT FROM A DISSERTATION ON THE PRIMITIVE RELIGION OF THE HINDUS.

Together with ſome extracts from the VEDAS, by SIR W. JONES; publiſhed for the firſt time in the ſixth Volume of his Works.

[Theſe fragments from the Vedas, were ſelected by the learned tranſlator, for the purpoſe of elucidating a very full diſſertation on the primitive religion of India, which it was his intention to have written, and of which his permature death has deprived the public.]

**** BUT that I may not ſeem to appropriate the merit of diſcoveries which others have previouſly made, I think it neceſſary to ſay, that the original Gayatri, or holieſt verſe in the Veda, has already been publiſhed, though very incorrectly, by Fra. Manuel da Aſſomcaon, a ſucceſsful miſſionary from Portugal, who may have received it, as his countrymen aſſert, from

from a converted Brahman; that the ſame venerable text was ſeen in the hand of Mr Wilkins, who no doubt well underſtood it, by two pundits of my acquaintance; and that a paraphraſe of it in Perſian, may be found in the curious work of Daraſhucuh, which deſerves to be mentioned very particularly. That amiable, but impolitic prince, who ſacrificed his throne and his life, to a premature declaration of his religious opinions, had employed ſix months, as he tells us, at Benares, in tranſlating, and explaining, fifty-one Upaniſhads, or ſecrets of the old Indian ſcripture; but he tranſlated only the verbal interpretations of his pundits, and blended the text of the Veda with different gloſſees, and even with the converſation, I believe, of his living Hindu expoſitors, who are naturally ſo loquacious, that when they have begun talking, they hardly know how to cloſe their lips.

Of this book I procured, with the aſſiſtance of colonel Poliar, a complete copy, corrected by a learned rajah, named Anandaram, with whom the colonel was very intimate: but though ſublime and majeſtic features of the original were diſcernible, in parts, through the folds of the Perſian drapery; yet the Sanſcreet names were ſo barbarouſly written, and the additions of the tranſlator, have made the work ſo deformed, that I reſolved to poſtpone a regular peruſal of it till I could compare it with the Sanſcreet original.—

Iſavoſyam; or, An Upaniſhad from the Yajur Veda.

1. By one Supreme ruler is this univerſe pervaded; even every world in the whole circle of nature. Enjoy pure delight, O man; by abandoning all thoughts of this periſhable world; and covet not the wealth of any creature exiſting.

2. He who in this life continually performs his religious duties, may deſire to live a hundred years; but even to the end of that period thou ſhouldeſt have no other occupation here below.

3. To thoſe regions where evil ſpirits dwell, and which utter darkneſs involves, all ſuch men ſurely go after death, as deſtroy the purity of their own ſouls.

4. There is one Supreme Spirit, which nothing can ſhake, more ſwift than the thought of man. That primeval mover, even divine intelligences cannot reach; that ſpirit, though unmoved, infinitely tranſcends others, how rapid ſoever their courſe.

5. That Supreme Spirit moves at pleaſure, but in itſelf is immoveable; it is diſtant from us, yet very near us; pervades this whole ſyſtem of worlds, yet infinitely beyond it.

6. The man who conſiders all beings as exiſting, even in the Supreme Spirit, and the Supreme Spirit as pervading all beings, henceforth views no creature with contempt.

7. In him who knows that all ſpiritual beings, are the ſame in kind with the Supreme Spirit, what room can there be for deluſion of mind, or what room for ſorrow when he reflects on the identity of the ſpirit.

8. The pure enlightened ſoul aſſumes a luminous form with no groſs body, with no perforation, with no veins or tendons, unblemiſhed, untainted by ſin, itſelf being a ray from the Infinite ſpirit, which knows the paſt and the future, which pervades all, which exiſted with no cauſe but itſelf, which created all things as they are in ages very remote.

9. They who are ignorantly devoted to the mere ceremonies of religion, are fallen into thick darkneſs; but they ſurely have a thicker gloom around them, who are ſolely attached to ſpeculative ſcience.

10. A diſtinct reward, they ſay, is reſerved for ceremonies; and a diſtinct reward, they ſay, for divine knowledge; adding, 'This we have heard from ſages who declared it to us.'

11. He

11. He alone is acquainted with the nature of ceremonies, and with that of ſpeculative ſcience, who is acquainted with both at once; by religious ceremonies he paſſes the gulph of death, and by divine knowledge he attains immortality.

12. They who adore only the appearances and forms of the deity, are fallen into thick darkneſs, but they ſurely have a thicker gloom around them, who are ſolely devoted to the abſtract eſſence of the divine eſſence.

13. A diſtinct reward, they ſay, is obtained by adoring the forms and attributes, and a diſtinct reward, they ſay, by adoring the abſtract eſſence; adding, 'This we have heard from ſages who declared it to us.'

14. He only knows the forms and the eſſence of the deity, who adores both at once; by adoring the appearances of the deity, he paſſes the gulph of death, and by adoring his abſtract eſſence he attains immortality.

15. Unveil, O thou who giveſt ſuſtenance to the world, that face of the true ſon, which is now hidden by a vaſe of golden light! ſo that we may ſee the truth, and know our whole duty!

16. O thou, who giveſt ſuſtenance to the world, thou ſole mover of all, thou who reſtraineſt ſinners, who pervadeſt yon great luminary, who appeareſt as the ſon of the Creator! hide thy dazzling beams, and expand thy ſpiritual brightneſs, that I may view thy moſt auſpicious, moſt glorious, real form.

'O M, Remember me, divine ſpirit! O M, Remember my deeds.'

17. That all pervading ſpirit, that ſpirit which gives light to the viſible ſun, even the ſame in kind, am I, though infinitely diſtant in degree. Let my ſoul return to the immortal ſpirit of God, and then let my body which ends in aſhes, return to duſt!

18. O ſpirit, who pervadeſt fire, lead us in a ſtraight path to the riches of beatitude! Thou, O God, poſſeſſeſt all the treaſures of knowledge: remove each foul taint from our ſouls; we continually approach thee with the higheſt praiſe and the moſt fervid adoration.

(*To be continued.*)

OF THE ORIGIN OR INVENTION OF BUTTER.

BUTTER is a ſubſtance ſo well known, that it is needleſs to give any definition of it. It is one of the three component parts of milk, the other two being *whey* and *cheeſe*. It is evident from the proceſſes by which butter and cheeſe are made, that theſe two parts are not completely diſſolved in the *ſerum* or whey, but only diffuſed through it like an emulſion. They may indeed be ſeparated from it by reſt alone, without any artificial preparation.

Butter, though uſed at preſent as food in moſt countries of Europe, was not known, or known very imperfectly to the antients. This, we think, is completely proved by profeſſor Beckman in his Hiſtory of Inventions. In our tranſlation of the Hebrew ſcripture, there is indeed frequent mention made of butter at very early periods: but, as the profeſſor well obſerves, the greateſt maſters of biblical criticiſm unanimoſly agree, that the word ſo tranſlated ſignifies milk or cream, or ſour thick milk, and cannot poſſibly mean what we call butter. The word plainly alludes to ſomething liquid, which was uſed for waſhing the feet, which was drunk, and which had ſometimes the power of intoxicating; and we know that mares milk may be ſo prepared as to produce the ſame effect.

The oldeſt mention of butter, the profeſſor thinks, is in the account of the Scythians, given by Herodotus (lib. IV. 2.) who ſays, that 'theſe people pour the milk of their mares into wooden veſſels, cauſe it to be violently ſtirred or ſhaken by their blind ſlaves,

ſlaves, and ſeparate the part which riſes to the ſurface, as they conſider it as more valuable and delicious than what is collected below it.' That this ſubſtance muſt have been a ſoft kind of butter, is well known; and Hippocrates gives a ſimilar account of the Scythian butter. The poet Alaxandrides, who lived ſoon after Hippocrates, deſcribing the marriage-feaſt of Iphicrates, who married the daughter of Cotys, king of Thrace, ſays, that the Thracians ate butter, which the Greeks at that time conſidered as a wonderful kind of food.

Dioſcorides ſays, that good butter was prepared from the fatteſt milk, ſuch as that of ſheep or goats, by ſhaking it in a veſſel till the fat was ſeparated. To this butter he aſcribes the ſame effects, when uſed externally, as thoſe produced by our butter at preſent. He adds alſo, and he is the firſt writer who makes the obſervation, that freſh butter might be melted and poured over pulſe and vegetables inſtead of oil, and that it might be employed in paſtry in the room of other fat ſubſtances. A kind of ſoot likewiſe was at that time prepared from butter for external application, which was uſed in curing inflammations of the eyes, and other diſorders. For this purpoſe the butter was put into a lamp, and when conſumed the lamp was again filled till the deſired quantity of ſoot was collected in a veſſel placed over it.

Galen, who diſtinguiſhes and confirms in a more accurate manner the healing virtues of butter, expreſsly remarks, that Cows' milk produces the fatteſt butter, that butter made from ſheeps' or goats' milk is leſs rich; and that aſſes' milk yields the pooreſt. He expreſſes his aſtoniſhment, therefore, that Dioſcorides ſhould ſay, that butter is made from the milk of ſheep and goats. He aſſures us that he had ſeen it made from cows' milk, and that he believes it had thence acquired its name. 'Butter (ſays he) may be very properly employed for ointments; and when leather is beſmeared with it, the ſame purpoſe is anſwered as when it is rubbed over with oil. In cold countries, which do not produce oil, butter is uſed in the baths; and that it is a real fat, may be readily perceived by its catching fire when poured over burning coals.' What has been here ſaid is ſufficient to ſhew that butter muſt have been very little known to, or uſed by the Greeks and the Romans in the time of Galen, that is, at the end of the ſecond century.

The profeſſor having collected, in chronological order, every thing which he could find in the works of the ancients reſpecting butter, concludes, that it is not a Grecian, and much leſs a Roman invention, but that the Greeks were made acquainted with it by the Scythians, the Thracians, and the Phrygians, and the Romans by the people of Germany. He is likewiſe decidedly of opinion, that when thoſe two poliſhed nations had learned the art of making it, they uſed it not as food, but only as an ointment, or ſometimes as a medicine. We never find it (ſays he) mentioned by Galen, and others, as a food, though they have ſpoken of it as applicable to other purpoſes. No notice is taken of it by Apicius; nor is there any thing ſaid of it in that reſpect by the authors who treat on agriculture, though they have given us very particular information concerning milk, cheeſe, and oil.'

The caſe, however, is now very different. It is, in this country, at leaſt, ſo general an article of food, that the proper methods of making and curing it, have engaged the attention of ſome of our ableſt writers on agriculture. In addition to what has been ſaid upon theſe ſubjects, our readers will probably be pleaſed with the following method of curing it, which is practiſed by ſome farmers in the pariſh of Udney, in the county of Aberdeen,

Aberdeen, and gives to their butter a great ſuperiority above that of their neighbours.

Take two parts of the beſt common ſalt, one part of ſugar, and one part of ſaltpetre; beat them up together, and blend the whole completely. Take one ounce of this compoſition for every ſixteen ounces of butter, work it well into the maſs, and cloſe it up for uſe.

Dr James Anderſon, from whoſe view of the Agriculture of the county of Aberdeen, this receipt is taken, ſays, that he knows of no ſimple improvement in economics greater than this is, when compared with the uſual mode of curing butter by means of common ſalt alone. 'I have ſeen (continues he) the experiment fairly made of one part of the butter made at one time being thus cured, and the other part cured with ſalt alone: the difference was inconceivable. I ſhould ſuppoſe that, in any open market, the one would ſell for 30 *per cent.* more than the other. The butter cured with the mixture appears of rich marrowy conſiſtence and fine colour, and never acquires a brittle hardneſs, nor taſtes ſalt; the other is comparatively hard and brittle, approaching more nearly to the appearance of tallow, and is much ſalter to the taſte. I have eat butter cured with the above compoſition that had been kept three years, and it was as ſweet as at firſt; but it muſt be noted, that butter thus cured requires to ſtand three weeks or a month before it is begun to be uſed. If it be ſooner opened, the ſalts are not ſufficiently blended with it; and ſometimes the coolneſs of the nitre will then be perceived, which totally diſappears afterward.'

The following obſervations reſpecting the proper methods of keeping both milk and butter, are by the ſame author, and we truſt may prove uſeful. Speaking ſtill of the county of Aberdeen, he ſays, 'The pernicious practice of keeping milk in leaden veſſels, and ſalting butter in ſtone jars, begins to gain ground among ſome of the fine ladies in this county, as well as elſewhere, from an idea of cleanlineſs. The fact is, it is juſt the reverſe of cleanlineſs; for in the hands of a careful perſon nothing can be more cleanly than wooden diſhes, but under the management of a ſlattern they diſcover the ſecret, which ſtone diſhes indeed do not. In return, theſe latter communicate to the butter and the milk, which has been kept in them, a poiſonous quality, which inevitably proves deſtructive to the human conſtitution. To the prevalence of this practice I have no doubt we muſt attribute the frequency of palſies, which begin to prevail ſo much in this kingdom: for the well known effect of the poiſon of lead is bodily debility, palſy, and death.

Sup. En. Brit.

A RECIPE.

THE following method of preparing water-proof leather, at a very ſmall expence, will be found invariably to ſucceed:—Take one pint of drying oil, two ounces of yellow wax, two ounces of ſpirits of turpentine, and one ounce of Burgundy pitch, melted carefully over a ſlow fire; with this compoſition new ſhoes and boots are to be rubbed, in the ſun, or at a diſtance from the fire, with a ſponge, as often as they become dry, until they are fully ſaturated; the leather then is impervious to wet, the ſhoes and boots laſt much longer, and acquire a degree of ſoftneſs and pliability.

The STORY of Madame la Marquiſe de ——.

Continued from page 182.

IT is alſo neceſſary that I ſhould inform you that the Count was a relation of the archbiſhop of Sens; that, during the agitations in France, for ſome time before the revolution actually began, and particularly while the archbiſhop was prime-miniſter, the Count was one of the moſt furious againſt any kind of conceſſion on the part of government, or the leaſt redreſs of any of the grievances complained of: at that time he expected power and eminent ſituations, from a confirmation of the old ſyſtem, with all its abuſes. He declared that nothing ought to be granted to the *canaille*; and he conſidered nine tenths of the nation as *canaille*.

After the archbiſhop was obliged to quit the helm, the Count began to change his language. This alteration was more and more remarkable in the progreſs of the revolution, until at laſt the change was ſo complete, that thoſe whom he had formerly ſtigmatiſed as *canaille* he now diſtinguiſhed by the title of *peuple ſouverain*. He altered his dreſs as well as his language, and aſſumed in both the ſtile of the *ſans-culottes*; became a declaimer in the Jacobine ſociety, and cultivated the acquaintance of one Collot d'Herbois, who, from a deſpicable comedian, now affected the tone of a diſintereſted patriot, and has ſince rendered his obſcure name infamous by crimes of the deepeſt die. By this fellow the Count was introduced to the good graces of Robeſpierre.

Though every kind of profligacy might be expected in a character ſuch as I have repreſented the Count's, yet you, my dear Miſs Clifford, who are of a country where, as I have been told, nothing of the ſame nature ever takes place, muſt be ſurpriſed at ſuch barefac'd apoſtacy in politics. Though an eſſential change of circumſtances certainly will juſtify an alteration of conduct, yet, in his variations, if a man always veer to the party in power, his real motives will be clearly ſeen; and, in England, ſuch a man would be deſpiſed, however elevated the ſituation in which he might be placed. It was not ſo at this time in France: to ſuch a height had this ſpecies of profligacy attained, that no inconſiſtency of this nature was thought diſgraceful; and ſome of the meaneſt of mankind were praiſed and applauded, while in power, without any regard to the baſeneſs by which they attained it.

The Count had formerly maintained that the power of the crown was too ſmall, and ought to be enlarged; yet when he ſaw it attenuated to a mere ſhadow, and unable to ſupport its own dignity, or reward its defenders, he joined the ruffian crew who wiſhed to annihilate it altogether. There is no doubt of his having been privy to the arrangements made for the attack on the Tuilleries on the 10th of Auguſt 1792; and there is great reaſon to believe that he was not ignorant of what was intended at the beginning of September following.

A ſhort time previous to that execrable period, a buſineſs of importance rendered it neceſſary for my mother to go to Havre. Her eſtate is at no great diſtance from that town. As a lady of her acquaintance and her ſteward were to accompany her, and as ſhe intended to ſtay only a few weeks, ſhe poſitively inſiſted on my remaining with an intimate friend of hers, a moſt amiable woman, the Counteſs of B——, who invited me to reſide with her at Auteuil, a village near Paris, until her return.

At Havre my mother heard the firſt detail of tranſactions, the horror of which it was not in the power of rumour to exaggerate. She was of uncommon ſenſibility, and ſubject to nervous complaints; ſhe was ſeized with repeated fits of a convulſive nature; even when ſhe had recovered from theſe, her mind continued unuſually agitated. Hearing of an Engliſh veſſel about to ſail, without acquainting any other perſon, attended by her maid only, ſhe took her paſſage; and the Counteſs of B—— knew nothing of her departure till ſhe received a letter from the maid, dated Portſmouth. My mother herſelf was unable to write. She was for ſome time attended by a phyſician there. An Engliſh nobleman, of the higheſt rank, whoſe country reſidence is at no great diſtance from Portſmouth, and who had been acquainted with her at Paris, hearing of the condition ſhe was in, came to that place, and carried her to his own houſe, where

all poſſible care being taken of her, ſhe entirely recovered. In the mean time the moſt unjuſt decrees were propoſed in the furious convention againſt emigrants. My mother's friends, particularly the Princeſs of P—— and the Counteſs of B——, wrote preſſing letters for her to return before a certain day, otherwiſe, by a ſevere decree now paſſed, her eſtate would be forfeited.—She reſolved to return accordingly: but being again taken ill at Portſmouth, ſhe was confined to her bed a conſiderable time, and the day fixed for the return of the emigrants elapſed before ſhe arrived in France.

When it was firſt propoſed in the convention that my mother's name ſhould be eraſed from the liſt of emigrants, a violent outcry was raiſed againſt it by that party called the Mountain: no explanation was liſtened to; it was reprobated as an attempt of ſhameful partiality to a perſon of quality, which none but ariſtocrats and royaliſts could make.

Pains, however, were taken privately to explain the circumſtances of the caſe to certain leading men of the Gironde party; one of whom renewed the propoſal, when the convention were in a leſs malignant humour. He began by ſaying, that "he wiſhed to make a motion, which, if it was not carried, would materially injure many worthy patriots and virtuous *ſans culottes*, who were in ſimilar or leſs favourable circumſtances than thoſe of of the perſon in whoſe behalf he was about to implore the juſtice of the convention; for he knew that they were no reſpecters of perſons in the diſtribution of juſtice; but in conformity to the motto of *égalité*, which they had adopted, would uſe the ſame weight and meaſure to all deſcriptions of people."

After a few circuitous flouriſhes of this kind, before he diſcovered his object, he recapitulated the circumſtances of my mother's caſe, and did not name her until the whole aſſembly was convinced that ſhe had been prevented by illneſs alone from arriving in France before the day appointed, by the decree, for the return of thoſe French who happened to be out of their native country. There was a loud cry in favour of what was demanded: no member of the Mountain ventured to oppoſe; and it was as unanimouſly decreed to eraſe her name from the liſt of emigrants, as it had, a few days before, been decreed to inſert it.

My mother remained in poſſeſſion of her eſtate.

Though I hated the republican principles of the Girondiſts, yet I never put them on a footing with the ſanguinary faction denominated the Mountain. Ever after this period my mother felt a ſtrong ſenſe of obligation to certain leaders of the former party: among thoſe attached to which were ſome men of great eloquence and very conſiderable talents, and two of the moſt extraordinary women that France has produced ſince the days of Joan d'Arc.

In the moſt dreadful ſituations, ſurrounded by all that could appal or depreſs the human mind, ancient or modern annals exhibit nothing ſurpaſſing the firmneſs and heroic elevation of ſoul with which Madame Roland and the aſtoniſhing Charlotte Corde met death.

The united energy of Robeſpierre and Danton had overturned the party of the Gironde; and thoſe two traitors were at the head of the atrocious gang who domineered over my unhappy country. Each wiſhed to be the ſupreme ruler; which neither could be, without the death of the other; of courſe, each meditated the deſtruction of his aſſociate.

Their reciprocal enmity became more and more apparent; and men began to arrange themſelves under thoſe two chiefs, in the expectation of the conteſt which ſoon after took place.

Camille Deſmoulins, whoſe name you muſt have heard, as one of the earlieſt promotors of the commotions in Paris, was an acquaintance of the Count. Deſmoulins was alſo a writer in favour of the revolution: a vein of pleaſantry runs through his works, which might have been agreeable on any other ſubject; but all kind of jocularity appears hideous, amid ſcenes of atrocity and murder. The Count had been confined above a month, on account of ill health, to a villa belonging to him in the neighbourhood of Paris.

Deſmoulins viſited him oftener than uſual, becauſe he was then in low ſpirits, and deprived of other entertainment.

ment. Desmoulins was particularly attached, at this time, to the faction of Danton. He convinced the Count that Robespierre had disgusted the most powerful friends of the republic; that he was losing his popularity daily; that he would be removed soon; and that Danton would be all-powerful.

With such impressions, the Count became extremely vexed that he should be considered as the partisan of a man so near his fall; and equally anxious to declare himself the friend of one rising to supreme power, he wished to have the merit of declaring for the latter before that event should take place; for which purpose he wrote the following epistle, which he intended to give to Desmoulins at his next visit, that he might deliver it to Danton.

"Citizen Danton,

"I have for some time viewed, with the utmost concern, the dangers to which the republic is exposed, by the execrable conduct of a madman. I know no person so able to secure to the nation all the advantages expected from the revolution as he who planned the victory on the glorious 10th of August, and the deceive transactions in the beginning of September following. Your patriotism, and the energy of your character, fix the hopes of all enlightened Frenchmen on you: from you they expect a termination of the present disorders, and of the power of a furious tyrant. The sooner you adopt measures for those purposes the better; for while that monster lives, neither your own life, nor that of any of your friends, can be safe:—I beg you will count me among the most sincere of that honourable class. I am infinitely concerned that ill health renders it impossible for me to give you these assurances by word of mouth, and assisting personally in whatever you may think proper to undertake. In the mean while depend on all my influence, and believe me to be your devoted friend, &c.

"———."

The Count expected Camille Desmoulins the morning after he had written the above: his old intimate, Collot d'Herbois, called that very evening; he had been absent from Paris on some of his horrid expeditions. Seeing a letter on the table in the Count's hand, addressed to Danton, he started.

"What is the matter?" said the Count.

"It is the first letter I ever wrote to him," replied the Count.

Collot d'Herbois then told him, that he began his correspondence at rather an unlucky time; and hinted, that if the letter was not of very great importance, he had best delay sending it, because he might soon have reason to wish that he were not known to have any particular connection with Danton.

The Count owned that the letter was of the utmost importance; and, to convince him, broke up the cover and read the contents.

D'Herbois then assured him, "that he had been drawn into an error, which might have had fatal consequences to him; and that Robespierre was surer of maintaining his power now than ever."

On which the Count observed, "that in such slippery times, the most cautious people were at a loss to know with what party, or what man, to fix themselves; that, for his own part, he had always had as much respect for Robespierre as for Danton; and that, after what he had just heard, he could not help having a great deal more: that the letter he had intended for Danton would do for Robespierre—that he would not need to change a single sentence, but merely put it under a new cover, with a new address; and he begged of his friend to deliver it the very next day: only it would be first of all necessary to eraze the name Danton at the top, and substitute that of Robespierre."

Collot d'Herbois objected to the erasure, saying, "it would have an awkward appearance if observed, and might create suspicion;" he therefore prevailed on the Count to write the letter anew, and to address it to citizen Maximilian Robespierre, and not simply to citizen Robespierre. "Great men," added Collot d'Herbois, "are subject to weaknesses as well as little men; and Robespierre himself, though entirely free from many of the weaknesses of humanity, certainly does feel something flattering to his ear, and which he thinks suitable to his character, in the name Maximilian; and therefore likes to have it always precede his surname Robespierre, which

I believe he intends, at a proper time, to drop altogether."

"Will not that have an ariſtocratic appearance?" ſaid the Count.

"Why, perhaps it may," replied Collot d'Herbois, with a grin, for his ſtern features did not admit a ſmile; "perhaps it may have that appearance; for nothing is ſo like an ariſtocrat, as a democrat, when he comes into power; as nothing is liker a democrat than an ariſtocrat thrown out of power: but this is only external appearance; the heart is always the ſame. For example, my dear Count, you are preciſely the ſame man you were when your relation, the archbiſhop of Sens, was prime-miniſter."

Without making any reply to this ironical compliment, the Count finiſhed the new edition of the letter, as Collot d'Herbois had directed: he then ſtepped for two minutes into another room, and at his return looking for the original letter, that he might burn it. This his friend informed him he had already done during his abſence; aſſuring him, at the ſame time, that he would deliver the new one to Robeſpierre the next morning.

All the circumſtances of this important interview between thoſe two loving friends, with many others reſpecting the Count, I learned afterward from a perſon from whom he concealed nothing: for though many tranſactions of this man's life were of a nature to require ſecrecy, yet he was incapable of it. To him it was like an abſolute neceſſary of life to have ſome man or woman into whoſe ears he might pour whatever was dangerous to utter in public, and painful for him to retain.

Soon after this the prediction of Collot d'Herbois was verified; the furious Danton was enſnared, impriſoned, and put to death, by the man whoſe life he had ſaved, when he was accuſed, and about to be proſecuted by the Gironde.

Robeſpierre, from this period, was all-powerful: the dreadful uſe he made of his power all the world knows. My mother and I lived in great privacy, hardly ever going out of the houſe, and receiving few or no company. Melancholy and dejected through the day, our ſhort ſlumbers interrupted in the night by the ſound of the drum and alarm bell; afraid to aſk the news in the morning, leſt we ſhould hear of the arreſtment of ſome friend or relation, and ſhocked with the accounts we daily received of freſh victims of cruelty, ſhe determined, at length, to withdraw from Paris, and endeavour to find tranquillity in a diſtant province of France.

She applied for paſſports with this intention: every thing was prepared for our journey. The paſſports were poſtponed, on I do not remember what pretence. We were at laſt aſſured that they would be delivered the following morning, and on that aſſurance went to bed in more compoſure of mind than uſual.

About two hours before our common hour of riſing, we were alarmed by a loud knocking at the gate of the hotel. Two municipal officers were admitted, and a party of national guards remained in the court.

As ſoon as my mother was dreſſed, and could go into the room in which the two officers waited, one of them preſented an order for ſeizing her papers, and carrying her to one of thoſe houſes of confinement, of which there were many at that time in Paris, and all over France.

The number of my mother's friends and acquaintance who were in this ſituation had ſuggeſted precaution, and prevented her from being entirely unprepared for this cruel incident: ſhe had nothing to dread, therefore, with regard to the examination of her papers. The officer informed her, that ſhe was ordered into confinement only as a perſon ſuſpected; that the order did not extend to me. This intelligence acted on her as a cordial: it evidently raiſed her ſpirits, and removed great part of her alarm. The daily executions, and other ſhocking occurrences, had produced an extraordinary change on my mother's conſtitution: it had familiariſed her with the idea of death, and greatly diminiſhed that nervous ſenſibility to which ſhe had formerly been ſubject. Her own perſonal danger affected her little: but, whatever threatened me, ſtill gave her alarm.

I begged of the officer that I might be my mother's companion in priſon; the man at firſt objected.

I ſunk on my knees, ſeized his hand, and

and intreated that I might not be ſeparated from my mother.

She was hurt at this; and ſaid with the tone of indignation—"Riſe, my daughter; though we are unfortunate, let us not be abject."

I repeated my requeſt to the officer, the tears ſtreaming from my eyes. The man was moved; and at laſt ſaid—"That if it was alſo my mother's deſire, he would take it upon him to indulge us."

Without paying attention to what my mother had ſaid, I preſſed the man's hand to my lips with a heart overflowing with gratitude.

Notwithſtanding her having at firſt determined otherwiſe, ſeeing the ſtate of my hand, ſhe joined in the requeſt, and we were conducted to the place deſtined for our confinement.

We were at breakfaſt, one morning, when my mother was ſummoned to appear before three commiſſioners, who had arrived at the place of our confinement, authoriſed to examine the priſoners, and report to a committee.

I became powerleſs, and was ready to faint.—"What is there alarming in this, my dear?" ſaid my mother; "it is what we have long expected, and even wiſhed. What I had moſt to fear was, leſt the circumſtances of my caſe would never have been examined into."

At my earneſt requeſt, I was permitted to accompany my mother. We were conducted into a large room, where the three commiſſioners ſat at the head of a table. I was a good deal ſurpriſed when I recogniſed, in one of them, the perſon who had taught me to dance. This tended to diminiſh my terror; for, although I had heard that the man had become a furious patriot, and knew that he was much of a coxcomb, yet I alſo knew that he had a very benevolent heart.

He that was the chief of this commiſſion, with leſs levity, had all the abſurdity of the dancing-maſter, and was the complete dupe of the hypocriſy and of the falſehoods at this time propagated by Robeſpierre.

The man began the examination by expreſſing concern at the cauſe of my mother's confinement.

She thanked him, adding, "that ſhe was concerned at the effect, but that ſhe had not yet been informed of the cauſe."

"I thought you had been told, citizen," replied he, "that you were under ſuſpicion of being a ſuſpected perſon."

"I was ſo, *citizen*," replied ſhe; "but I never have been told what I am under the ſuſpicion of being ſuſpected of."

"To be ſuſpected is ſufficient," ſaid he; "and all who are in that predicament are under confinement as much as you; ſo you have no reaſon to complain."

"I ſhould have been glad to hear that I was the only innocent perſon in France in this ſituation," replied my mother; "ſo that what you have told me can be no alleviation of my ſufferings."

"Your confinement will not be of long duration," ſaid the dancing-maſter.

"I indulged that hope when I was firſt arreſted," ſhe replied; "but I now have been detained here three months, without any crime having been alleged againſt me."

"You were eraſed from the liſt of emigrants by the Girondiſts," ſaid the commiſſioner.

"I could not have been eraſed by any other," replied ſhe, "as they were the perſons in power at that time."

"Your connection with that faction, however, creates ſuſpicion againſt you."

"I had no connection with them; nor did I ever ſee any of them until I was ſummoned to appear before one of their committees."

"I know that to be exactly ſo," ſaid the dancing maſter; "and I have good reaſon for believing that ſhe had a ſincere hatred againſt Briſſot, Genſonnet, Kerſaint, and the other members of that committee, previous to the time they ſtruck her from the liſt of emigrants; but you very well know, brother, that it is difficult to retain hatred againſt thoſe who do you a good office, even although they ſhould be bad men."

"I know no ſuch thing, brother," replied the chief commiſſioner.—"No act of kindneſs to myſelf or friends would prevent me from abhorring thoſe who performed acts of public miſchief."

"I can aſſure you," reſumed my mother, "that no perſon could more ſin-

ſincerely abhor the public miſchief performed by the Girondiſts than I did."

"Your having been eraſed by them, however, was unlucky, and will be of no ſervice to you now," ſaid the chief commiſſioner.

"It ought at leaſt to do me no harm," ſaid ſhe.

"The Girondiſts were all traitors," reſumed the commiſſioner.

"I am ſorry for it," ſaid my mother.

"What! ſorry for the Girondiſts."

"I am ſorry they were traitors."

"You have reaſon, citizen," ſaid the firſt commiſſioner; "for it is a very dangerous thing, citizen, to have had traitors for your friends."

"It ought not; ſince it is clear that I had no ſhare in their treaſon."

"Do you not know that thoſe traitors, the Girondiſts, intended to reſtore monarchy?"

"No," replied ſhe; "I really do not know it."

"No!" exclaimed he—"Why all France knows it."

"Since that was their intention," rejoined my mother, "dethroning the king ſeems to have been a round about way of going to their object."

"They were forced into that meaſure," ſaid he, "and can claim little merit from it."

"Very little indeed," added my mother.

"But their deſign was afterward apparent, by the various attempts they made to ſave the tyrant."

"Tyrant!" exclaimed my mother, throwing her eyes upward.

"Yes," re-echoed the commiſſioner, "a bloody tyrant! who gave poſitive orders to the Swiſs to ſlaughter the innocent citizens on the 10th of Auguſt."

"The ſame Girondiſts," continued he, "were equally diſpoſed to have ſaved the life of the Queen, who was of a more bloody and tyrannical diſpoſition, if poſſible, than Capet himſelf."

"They were both very bloody-minded tyrants, that is clear," rejoined the other commiſſioner, who had not before ſpoken, ſhaking his head and looking to his brother.

"And the Princeſs Eliſabeth!" exclaimed my mother—"ſhe was alſo a bloody-minded tyrant—Was ſhe not?"

The commiſſioner ſtared.

"Or, what was her crime?" reſumed my mother, with an animation of look approaching to wildneſs.

The commiſſioner looked firſt at one, then at the other, of his brethren.

He who had ſpoken laſt ſaid that "Elizabeth was certainly ſuſpected of being an enemy to the revolution."

"She certainly was," added the chief commiſſioner. And then looking to the dancing-maſter, he added—"Did not you tell me, brother, that one who attended in the Temple informed you that he had overheard her praying very fervently, and that her prayers were anti-revolutionary?"

"It was you that ſaid they were anti-revolutionary," replied the dancing-maſter.—"I only told you that the man had ſaid ſhe was overheard praying for the *reformation* of the king's enemies."

The two commiſſioners looked at each other without ſpeaking.

The perſon who ſat at the bottom of the table, and acted as clerk, had formerly been a prieſt, and had diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a caſuiſt: he now opened his mouth for the firſt time, and ſaid, with a ſolemn tone, "By *reformation* ſhe meant *deſtruction*."

"Ay, ſhe certainly meant deſtruction," rejoined the firſt commiſſioner.

"And if the prayer ſhould ever be granted," reſumed the clerk, "it is more likely to be according to the *meaning* than the expreſſion of the petition."

"Moſt aſſuredly," ſaid the chief commiſſioner.

"And you will be pleaſed to obſerve," added the clerk, "that ſuch prayers being granted according to the meaning of the petitioner, involves the deſtruction of the republic: its beſt defenders would, according to her prayer, be cut off like the great Marat; for, by the King's enemies, ſhe muſt have undoubtedly meant Robeſpierre, and many other patriots, all perfectly known to him to whom the prayers were addreſſed."

"Moſt aſſuredly," repeated the commiſſioner.

"It follows, therefore, as a neceſſary conſequence, that the princeſs Eliſabeth's prayers were anti-revolutionary," continued the caſuiſt, "and might have been the cauſe of overſetting the revolution: and to overſet the revo-

lution

tion by dint of prayers is juſt as treaſonable as by any other means: for, when the revolution is overſet, where is the difference?"

"None! none!" exclaimed the commiſſioner.

"That being the caſe," ſaid the clerk, "it is clear that the Princeſs Elizabeth was a bloody-minded tyrant, and merited death.'

"Ah! the monſter," ſaid my mother.

The dancing-maſter was the only one of the commiſſioners who heard this expreſſion, which was almoſt drowned by a profound ſigh, and by my mother's burſting into tears as ſhe uttered it.

This man underſtood ſome of her anſwers better than his brethren, and had been uneaſy during the examination, leſt ſhe ſhould ſay ſomething that would increaſe the danger of her ſituation: to prevent which he roſe, ſaying "that the priſoner ſeemed indiſpoſed, and that he imagined no other queſtions needed be put to her." The other commiſſioners acquieſced. My mother and I withdrew. When we were alone ſhe gave vent to the indignation ſhe had with difficulty ſuppreſſed during the examination.

My mother became ſolicitous leſt the conſtant confinement ſhould affect my heart: and as my unwillingneſs to leave her hindered me from availing myſelf of the permiſſion I had of going abroad ſo often as I might, ſhe contrived to give me little commiſſions, which required to be executed at a conſiderable diſtance, that I might derive benefit from the freſh air and the exerciſe. One day ſhe found a pretext for ſending me as far as the village of Paſſy, with a meſſage to a lady who lived in the houſe which your countryman, the celebrated Dr Franklin, had formerly inhabited.

(*To be continued.*)

REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

Marſh's Hiſtory of the Politics of Great Britain and France, from the Peace of Pilnitz. (*Continued.*)

WE have already, p. 186, given a ſhort analyſis of Vol. 1ſt of this intereſting Work. Vol. 2d is ſtill more important, it begins with the communications between the Miniſters of his Britannic Majeſty, and M. M. Marat and Chauvelin. The author ſtates that a French gentleman obtained an introduction to Mr Pitt, as a perſon empowered by the French Executive Council to demand an audience of him, but inſiſted on with-holding his name, till he ſhould have a poſitive aſſurance that he ſhould be received, and a rendezvous given. When the meeting took place, and his inſtructions were demanded, it appeared that he had no authority whatever; and he preſented M. Marat, as the perſon authoriſed to treat: but, on being aſked for his powers, he alſo acknowleged that he had none. Mr Pitt, ſacrificing his feelings to his deſire of preſerving peace, very civilly diſmiſſed the the *ci-diſant* ambaſſadors; ſaying to M. Marat, that it would give him great pleaſure to treat with him as a confidential perſon from the French Executive Council. That confidence was accordingly requeſted by M. Marat: but the Executive Council refuſed to give him any powers, and ordered him to return to Paris immediately.

On the 29th of December 1792, M. Chauvelin delivered his famous note to Lord Grenville. The moſt important part of it is the paſſage by which he attempts to explain away the decree of the National Convention of the 19th of November, promiſing "fraternity and aſſiſtance to all nations who ſhould wiſh to recover their liberty," by ſaying "that it was applicable only to thoſe people, who, having conquered their liberty, might requeſt the fraternity and aſſiſtance of the French Republic by a ſolemn and unequivocal expreſſion of the general will." On this paſſage, Mr Marſh expreſſes himſelf as follows:

'This explanation is an inſtance of ſuch black hypocriſy, and ſuch daring aſſurance, as is hardly to be found but within the limits of Republican France: for

for it was given twelve days after the decree of the 15th of December, in which the National Covention had ſolemnly declared that, "every nation, which would not rebel againſt its government, ſhould be treated as an enemy." It was given likewiſe three days after the reſolution of the 24th of December, by which the National Convention had determined, that "the decree of the 19th of November ſhould be actually applied to England." And yet M. Chauvelin, or rather the Executive Council, was not aſhamed to aſſert in this very note, that "ſuch an idea could not, without injuſtice, be imputed to the National Convention, and that this venerable body, which had declared itſelf the decided enemy of all nations which would not rebel againſt their governments, had no deſign whatſoever of exciting inſurrections in neutral countries." Beſides, the interpretation of the decree of the 19th November, is in direct contradiction to the plain terms of the decree itſelf, which are, "the National Convention will grant fraternity and aſſiſtance to all the people who ſhall *wiſh to recover*," not *who ſhall have recovered* "their liberty," as the interpretation implies. Further, the general proclamation, annexed to the decree of the 15th of December, in which the following words, "we are come to expell your tyrants." were put into the mouths of the French Generals, affords an additional proof, that it was not the intention of the National Convention to defer the promiſed fraternity, till the nations, for whom this ineſtimable bleſſing was deſigned, had already dethroned their ſovereigns. And that it was the grand object of the decree of the 19th of November, to excite inſurrections, had been admitted by the ſame French Miniſter, Le Brun, from whom Chauvelin received his inſtructions. For, on the 5th of December, (three weeks before M. Chauvelin delivered the preſent note to Lord Grenville.) Le Brun in a letter to the Preſident of the National Convention, announced an inſurrection in a biſhoprick of the German empire as an happy effect of the decree of the 19th of November.

'In like manner, the Preſident himſelf, on the 3d of December, had quoted the decree in queſtion, and introduced it with the following preface: "Shall we have reſtored the ſovereignty of the people for no other purpoſe than to replunge them into ſlavery? The public inſtrument by which we are bound in alliance, and to reciprocal defence, is written in nature. Our principles, our hatred to kings, theſe are our miniſters plenipotentiary." Moniteur, 6th December 1792.---After the unanimous interpretations, then, which had been publicly given in the Convention itſelf, at the beginning of December, one of which proceeded from the Preſident, and another from the Miniſter for Foreign affairs, it was expected that the Britiſh Miniſtry at the end of the ſame month ſhould give credit to M. Chauvelin's diametrically oppoſite interpretation!

On a paſſage in the ſame note of M. Chauvelin to Lord Grenville, in which he formally declares "that France would not attack Holland while that power confined itſelf on its part within the bounds of ſtrict neutrality," the author obſerves that

'Yet only fourteen days after this ſolemn declaration, the Executive Council ſent poſitive orders to General Miranda, to invade, within twelve days at fartheſt, Dutch Flanders and the province of Zealand. It cannot be objected that the States General had in the mean time tranſgreſſed the bounds of neutrality; for a more ſcrupulous obſervation of them was impoſſible. An attack on France could not even have ſuggeſted itſelf to the Government of Holland; for the Dutch troops were withdrawn from the frontiers, to preſerve tranquillity in the interior, which the French party in Holland threatened to diſturb: and it was the defenceleſs ſtate, in which the Dutch frontier towns were thus left, that tempted the Executive Council to give the order for invaſion.'

Lord Grenville's anſwer was delivered to M. Chauvelin on the the 31ſt of December; and a reply to it was returned on the 13th of January. Mr Marſh copies the reply at length, and comments on it with great ſeverity. On that part of it in which the Executive Council declares that "the Republic renounces conqueſt, and that its occupying the Netherlands would continue no longer than the war, and during that time which might be neceſ-

ſary

ſary for the Belgians to ſecure and conſolidate their liberty; after which, provided they were independent or happy, France would be ſufficiently rewarded;" he remarks that,

'At the very time the Executive Council wrote thus ſentimentally on the pretended independence of the Belgians, it was fully determined to incorporate Belgia into France. For, in the firſt place, within four and twenty hours after this note was ſigned, the Executive Council ſigned the inſtructions for the Commiſſaries in Belgia: and the whole drift of theſe inſtructions, which are printed in Chauſſard's Memoires Hiſtoriques et Politiquies, p. 180---228, was manifeſtly to reduce the Belgians to a ſtate of abſolute dependence on France, as every one muſt perceive even on a ſuperficial reading. Secondly, on the 31ſt of December 1792, (a whole week before the note of the Executive Council to the Britiſh Government was ſigned, one of the Commiſſaries, Publicola Chauſſard, received his private inſtructions to the ſame effect. Thirdly, when the Commiſſaries, who were nine in number, met at Bruſſels on the 3d of February 1793, to determine the important queſtion, whether Belgium ſhould be annexed to France, agreeably to their inſtructions, or, as was ſaid, agreeably to the will of the Republic? the queſtion was determined in the affirmative.' See the documents in Chauſſard's Memoires, p. 80---85. Laſtly, General Dumouriez, who was well acquainted with the ſecrets of the French Government, has publicly made the following confeſſion: "The real intention of the Executive Council was not that the Liegeois, and ſtill leſs that the people of Flanders, ſhould meet in a body, to form a conſtitution and laws for themſelves: the Council feared that, once aſſembled, they might feel their ſtrength and eſtabliſh an independent republic." Dumouriez's Life, p. 348. vol. iii. There remains, therefore, not the ſhadow of a doubt, that it was the intention of the French Government from the very beginning to incorporate Belgia into France, and conſequently it is certain that the aſſurances of the contrary, which were given to the Britiſh Government on the 7th of January, were given with the conſciouſneſs of their falſehood.'

Mr Marſh then proceeds to ſhew that the French rulers had fully reſolved on a war with Great Britain, ſome time before the middle of January 1793. He adverts to Monge's circular letter of the 31ſt of December to the ſea-port towns in France; by all of which it was conſidered as a ſignal for an immediate attack on England; and he quotes, from Dumouriez's Memoirs, the letter of Le Brun to that General, in which he tells him "to pay no regard to the negociation with Great Britain; that the negociation was not even a ſubject of inquiry." He cites Dumouriez's letter of the 15th of January, in which he ſays, "it would have been extremely eaſy for France to have avoided a war with England;" the remarkable declaration of Lord Auckland in the Houſe of Lords, that, "on the 9th of January 1793, General Dumouriez himſelf acknowleged to his Lordſhip, that the French Executive Council had determined on a war with England;" and the poſitive orders of the 15th of January to General Miranda, for an immediate invaſion of Holland.

Mr Marſh then details at length the motives which induced France to force England into a war. We ſhall copy for our readers what he ſays on this ſubject:

'The rational ſenſe of liberty which had long prevailed in Britain, was ſcarcely awakened in France, when, in conſequence of the impetuoſity of the French character, it began to degenerate into wild enthuſiaſm. From the original deſign of eſtabliſhing a monarchy, limited by a proper intermixture of democracy and ariſtocracy, which is the happieſt conſtitution for a great empire, a ſudden tranſition was made to all the horrors of anarchy: and the Conſtituent Aſſembly, in which were many very reſpectable members, was ſcarcely diſſolved, when the Legiſlative Aſſembly which met in the autumn of 1791, and conſiſted chiefly of violent democrats, formed the ſecret reſolution of dethroning the King of France, and of raiſing themſelves, under the ſpecious and alluring title of friends of the people, to the dignity of all-potent ſovereigns. In the Jacobin Club eſpecially, where all ſubjects of importance were diſcuſſed and arranged, before they were introduced into the national Aſſembly, the plan was

already ſettled at the beginning of the year 1702, not only for the eſtabliſhment of a republic in France, but for the introduction of the ſame form of government in every quarter of Europe. The ſpirit which animated the Club of the Jacobins, operated on almoſt every member of the National Aſſembly: and to the National Convention, which met in September 1792, it was tranſmitted in all its vigour. A hatred of kings which, without diſtinction, either of their political power, or of their private character, were denominated tyrants, betrayed itſelf in every harangue: and ſovereigns of all deſcriptions were openly branded, in what was called the ſenate of a great nation, with the approbrious appellation of public robbers. And this hatred diſplayed itſelf not merely in detached ſpeeches, or in the opinions of only a few orators, but was ſo generally adopted that it became an eſſential ingredient in French politics. "Principles," ſaid Gregoire, the Preſident of the National Convention on the 28th of November 1792, "are waging war againſt royalty, which will fall under the blows of philoſophy;" and five days afterward, another Preſident, Barrere, with his gorgeous eloquence, declared, "that their principles and their hatred of kings were their miniſters plenipotentiary." But ſhould any one ſtill entertain a doubt whether this hatred extended itſelf to the French rulers in general, it will certainly be removed by the following exclamation of the whole National Aſſembly on the 4th of September 1792, "we all ſwear hatred to kings and to royalty."

'This hatred, however, which had never been accompanied with fear, was gradually converted, before the declaration of war againſt England, into profound contempt; and the name of king was become, in the National Convention, a ſubject of jeſt and ridicule. "Another Bourbon, (exclaimed Treillard, then Preſident of the Convention, on January 8th, 1795, when the King of the Two Sicilies had been forced by the French fleet in the Mediterranean to ſubmit to an indignity,) another Bourbon in the number of the vanquiſhed: kings are here the order of the day." And the contempt of the French rulers for the kingdom of Great Britain in particular was ſo great, that, according to their own declarations, they cared for it as little as for the republic of Raguſa. This contempt aroſe in ſome meaſure from the pride with which the ſucceſsful campaign of 1792 neceſſarily inſpired them, but more particularly from their conviction that French principles had every where taken ſuch deep root, that the neighbouring nations were become ripe for rebellion, were prepared to depoſe their ſovereigns, and to open their gates to the pretended deliverers of the human kind. Of the Engliſh nation, in particular, they entertained theſe ſentiments: whence they ſuppoſed, that the Engliſh Government was not only in a ſtate of debility, but approaching to its final diſſolution; and ſo confident were they in their expectations of univerſal inſurrection, that the impending execution of Louis the 16th was openly repreſented in the National Convention as a prelude to ſimilar executions in the other kingdoms of Europe. "Teach the nations (ſaid Remi, on the ſecond of December, 1792,) to to puniſh their tyrants in the manner which becomes them;" and two days afterward, the celebrated orator Carra, ſaid likewiſe to the National Convention, "Ye know, that the ſtroke by which the head of Louis is about to fall, will make the heads of the other deſpots totter." And after the fatal cataſtrophe had taken place in France, Danton, ſpeaking of kings in general, ſaid only two days before the declaration of war againſt Great Britain: "You have thrown them the gauntlet; this gauntlet, is the head of a king: it is the ſignal of their approaching death." Even ſo early as the 21ſt of November, the Preſident of the National Convention, Gregoire, in a ſpeech which was tranſlated into all languages, and was publiſhed two days after the celebrated decree, as a manifeſto of all nations againſt their ſovereigns, had declared "it was a glorious day for the univerſe, when the National Aſſembly of France pronounced theſe words, *royalty is aboliſhed.*"

'That in making theſe, and numerous other declarations of the ſame kind, the rulers of France had their eyes directed particularly to Great Britain, is too apparent to ſtand in need of additional proof, ſince the whole of the preceeding hiſtory contains

tains one continual demonſtration of it. All doubts, however, on this ſubject, ſhould any really remain, will be removed by the ſpeech which was uttered by Carra in the National Convention of the 2d of January; a ſpeech which is ſo much the more remarkable, as it was not only inſolent in the extreme towards the Britiſh Government, but was delivered at the opening of the negociation between Lord Grenville and M. Chauvelin, and proved, therefore, or at leaſt might have proved at that very time, to the world at large, that it was not the object of the National Convention to produce a reconciliation with the Britiſh Cabinet. "Your courage (ſaid Carra,) will rouſe all nations; and they will ſoon wiſh to have their tenth of Auguſt, their convention, and their republic. Already has George the Third commanded the Tower of London to be fortified; need we more, to enable us to predict the deſtruction of this new Baſtile? Need we more, to enable us to foreſee the overthrow of royal and noble tyranny in England? The human ſpecies commenced with infancy: it now approaches towards manhood. Form not then your judgment of what you have to fear by the preparations of England, and by the comedy now played by the Parliament in concert with the Court: and be aſſured, that it is not the real intention of the Court to make war on us, but merely to intimidate the National Convention; let therefore the head of Louis fall; and George the Third, with his miniſter, Pitt, will feel if their heads reſt firm on their ſhoulders. Then will the Parliament of England no longer heſitate to demand an alliance with the French Republic. The ſame fate will attend the other deſpots: and ſhortly will every nation ſay, the head of our tyrant is not more divine than that of Louis; let us ſtrike it off therefore; let us aboliſh royalty, let us imitate the French in every thing; and cries *Vive la liberte! Vive l'egalite! Vive la republique!* ſhall reſound in every quarter of Europe." By ſpeeches like theſe, and ſtill more by actions which correſponded to them, the republicans of France, republicans who, as Louvet ſaid, were worthy of the name, "aſpired at the laſting renown, at the immortal honour of aboliſhing royalty itſelf, of aboliſhing it for ever, firſt in France, and then throughout the world."

In the next chapter, Mr Marſh ſtates, with great clearneſs, the events of the laſt fourteen days before the declaration of war. His account of the laſt miſſion of M. Marat to this country is, that the 24th of January was the day appointed for Marat's departure from Paris: but that Le Brun, willing, as Dumouriez himſelf obſerves in his Memoirs, to counteract the negociation without appearing ſo to do, would not permit Marat to leave Paris till the 26th of that month. He landed at Dover, and thence wrote for farther inſtructions: he then went to London; and, on his arrival, he ſent a ſhort note to Lord Grenville, ſignifying to him that he had come over to take charge of the diplomatic papers in the houſe of the late French Envoy. He never requeſted an interview, nor ſolicited a correſpondence; waiting, as he ſaid, for inſtructions. Theſe inſtructions never came; on the 4th of February, the French declaration of war was firſt known in London; and M. Marat then ſent a letter to Lord Grenville to take leave on his return to Paris. Thus began and thus ended M. Marat's celebrated miſſion.

The 16th and laſt chapter of this work contains an account of the ſtate of parties in France, at the begining of the year 1793. The author's account of them is, nearly in his own words, as follows: The two great parties were the Jacobins, or anarchiſts, headed by Robeſpiere; and the Girondiſts, headed by Briſſot: the latter were men of education; the Jacobins, though many of them were not devoid of natural abilities, were for the moſt part unlettered enthuſiaſts. The one had been educated in the ſchool of French philoſophy and the tenets of the Encyclopediſts; the others had learned no maxims beſides thoſe which were ſuggeſted by anarchy and brutal violence. In regard to morality, the Jacobins ſet all honour and religion at open defiance; the Girondiſts poſſeſſed little of either, but had the habit of concealing their ſentiments. In the ſtruggle between two unprincipled parties, that which goes the greateſt length uſually has moſt the appearance of conſiſtency, has fewer weak parts open to attack, has moſt power and energy, and will

therefore generally ſucceed. Both the parties were unanimous for the war with Great Britain: but, as ſoon as the war grew ſomewhat unpopular in conſequence of Dumouriez's defeat at Neerwerden, each reproached the other as being the authors of it. "Who provoked the war?" ſays Briſſot, in his letter to his conſtituents, "the Anarchiſts alone." In return, when the Anarchiſts had brought Briſſot to the bar, one of the principal charges againſt him was "that he had involved France in a war with England."---"No," he exclaimed, "it was not I, it was the Aſſembly of the Nation who decreed the war!" This, Mr Marſh obſerves, is an acknowlegement from both parties, that not to the Britiſh, but to the French Government, its origin muſt be aſſigned. He then proceeds to a confutation of the eighteen pretexts alleged by the French in juſtification of the war, and to a general recapitulation of the leading points endeavoured to be eſtabliſhed in his work. An Appendix is annexed, containing a narrative of the attempts made by the Britiſh Government to reſtore peace: written with a view to prove, that the continuance of the war can no more be aſcribed to the Britiſh Government than the commencement of it.

Travels in England, Scotland, and the Hebrides; undertaken for the Purpoſe of examining the State of the Arts, the Sciences, Natural Hiſtory, and Manners, in Great Britain: containing Mineralogical Deſcriptions of the Country round Newcaſtle; of the Mountains of Derbyſhire; of the Environs of Edinburgh, Glaſgow, Perth, and St Andrew's; of Inverary, and other Parts of Argyleſhire; and of the Cave of Fingal. Tranſlated from the French of B. Faujas de Saint-Fond, Member of the National Inſtitute, and Profeſſor of Geology in the Muſeum of of Natural Hiſtory at Paris. 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. *Ridgeway.*

THIS tour was made in the autumn of 1784; and the reader is informed, in a ſhort preface, that the narrative "was prepared for the preſs in the ſecond year of the revolution; but the troubles of that period rendered it neceſſary to delay its publication." The travels were undertaken for the purpoſe of collecting information on many intereſting ſubjects; and the Britiſh reader will probably find ſome additional entertainment in obſerving the impreſſions made on an inquiſitive and intelligent foreigner, by the various objects which attracted his notice in this country.—The work is divided into chapters; and the ſubject of the firſt is London. M. St Fond commences his remarks with a deſcription of the breakfaſts at the houſe of Sir Joſeph Banks, "the rendezvous of thoſe who cultivate the ſciences, where foreigners are always received with politeneſs and affability."

M. St Fond does not confine his remarks to objects merely intellectual. We are not diſpoſed, indeed, to deny that there is much good ſenſe in a ſubſtantial Engliſh dinner; and the author has deſcribed two, with much commendation, of which he partook in company with the members of the Royal Society. He beſtows a ſtrong eulogy on coffee; which, he obſerves, Voltaire called *the quinteſſence of the mind.* "In France, we commonly drink only one cup of *good* coffee after dinner. In England, it ſeems to be all one *what kind* they drink, provided they have four or five cup fulls." He complains of this liquor being rendered "ſo diſguſting, in a country where it is ſo neceſſary for removing melancholy humours."

The ſecond chapter contains the particulars of a viſit to Mr Herſchel at Slough.

The author afterward viſited the gardens at Kew, and the Britiſh Muſeum. He juſtly prefers the former to any other gardens of the kind which he has ever ſeen. At the Britiſh Muſeum he cenſures the want of arrangement.—Many other curioſities of the capital are noticed.

Towards the end of Auguſt, M. St Fond departed for Scotland, in company with Count Paul Andream of Milan, Mr William Thornton, (an American gentleman) and M. de Mecies. —M. St Fond was indefatigable in his mineralogical examinations of the country over which he travelled. They ſtopped ſome days at Newcaſtle to view the coal mines and manufactories. The ſimplicity of the buildings, and the economy obſerved in the management of theſe concerns, obtain much com-

commendation. "It is," says the author, "a taste for pomp and grandeur which almost always ruins the manufactories of France, and prevents those new ones which we want, from being established." Few things attracted more of the notice and admiration of the travellers, than the roads constructed with so much persevering ingenuity for transporting coals from the mines to the water side. "The great economy produced by these contrivances, enables the English to sell the coal which they export, at a lower price than it can be afforded from our own mines, in all cases where we have to bring it more than three or four miles by land. Marseilles affords an example in point, where the coal of England is cheaper than the coal from their own mines, of which there are a great number within four or five leagues." The author relates a conversation between several learned Americans, among whom was Dr Benjamin Franklin; in which it was maintained that to her coal mines, principally, England is indebted for her wealth and power; the comfort of cheap fuel being so great an encouragement to industry in cold countries. "I have observed," said one, "in several provinces of France, through which I have travelled in winter, that from the want of fuel, the effect of the cold was such, that whole families were compelled to retire to their beds, where they remained in a state of torpor, unable to labour, and consuming in a few days all their little savings!" —"That season which is so fatal to the industry of other countries, does not diminish the labour of the English people; and the necessary consequence of a great mass of population, constantly employed in pursuits of commerce and manufactures, is an increase of wealth, equally advantageous to the state and to individuals."

In the road to Edinburgh, and indeed every where throughout his tour, the author has examined and described the internal organization of the country.

The principal object of M. St Fond's inquiry, in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, appears to have been the grand iron foundery at Carron, which he visited: but the regulations established at those works did not admit of his obtaining unlimited communications. The travellers then proceeded to Glasgow; and the author has given an account of many volcanic productions observed in the environs of that place. They continued their route by Dumbarton, and along the banks of the beautiful lake Loch-lomond, to Inverary; but, as they were there at the time when the justiciary lords were on the circuit, the travellers would have found very indifferent accommodations, had they not fortunately been provided with letters of introduction to the Duke of Argyle, who was then at Inverary Castle, and by whom they were received with great politeness and hospitality. We find a description of the Castle, and of a quarry at the extremity of the park, in which was a bank of porphyry above a bank of limestone. The porphyry was of a reddish ground, and immediately succeeded the vegetable earth.

He takes a comparative view of the *table-tactics* of the French and of the English. He compliments us with the praise of dexterity. "In England, the fork is always held in the left hand, and the pieces may be carried to the mouth with either. The motion is quick and precise. The manœuvres at an English dinner are founded upon the same principle as the Prussian discipline.—Not a moment is lost!" "In France, when the meat is cut in pieces, the knife is laid down on the right side of the plate, and the fork is changed from the left to the right hand, with which it is lifted to the mouth."

Pursuing their journey, at Dalmally, Mr Patrick Fraser, schoolmaster, "a modest, well informed man," undertook to accompany them to the Isle of Staffa. Some antient tombs near Dalmally, seen by the author, form an interesting object of inquiry. He was likewise here informed that monuments of a different kind were to be seen at the house of Mr Macnab, a locksmith. "He has in his possession," said Patrick Fraser, "a precious manuscript, containing several of the poems of Ossian in the Celtic language. You shall have the pleasure of hearing him sing them: for the carolling of the sublime verses of this ancient poet has always been a sort of amusement, which the inhabitants of the

the mountains and Hebrides have preſerved and tranſmitted from generation to generation." They went to the houſe, but Mr Macnab was from home; and therefore, as the manuſcript was always kept under lock and key, a ſight of it could not be obtained. His brother expreſſed his regret at not being able to ſhew to them a treaſure, of which his family had been in poſſeſſion for more than four hundred years.

On their arrival at Oban, the author's companions proceeded in ſmall fiſhing boats for the Iſle of Mull, while he waited for a more commodious method of conveyance, and found employment in examining the neighbouring hills.

On the next morning, therefore, they ſet off for the cave of Fingal. This extraordinary cavern has already been ſo fully deſcribed, that we think it unneceſſary to dilate on the preſent account:—but M. St Fond has given a chapter to the natural hiſtory of the Iſle of Staffa, accompanied with two picturеſque views, executed with great neatneſs. He ſays that

"Sir Joſeph Banks was the firſt who gave to the cave of Staffa the name of the Cave of Fingal. I made minute inquiries to know what relation this cave had to the father of Oſſian. I was aſſured the miſtake was owing to the name being equivocal. The following is their explanation: The true name of the cave is *An-uaſine*. *An*, the; *ua*; grotto, cave, cavern; *ſine*, melodious. The name of Fingal, in the ſame language, is ſpelled and pronounced *fion* in the nominative. But the Erſe nouns are declinable, and the genitive is *fine*: ſo that if one wiſhed to expreſs the cave of Fingal in the Erſe language, he would write *an-ua-fine*."—"In this caſe, the obſervation of Mr Troil, on the agreeable ſound which he heard iſſuing from the bottom of the cave, when the water ruſhed in, is valuable, and comes in ſupport of the true denomination."

M. St Fond and his companions had the advantage of favourable weather, and returned to Torloiſk the ſame evening. In the deſcription of the Iſle of Mull, one of the greateſt natural curioſities mentioned is a large regular wall of black baſaltes near Achnacreag.—

"A vaſt black rock, perfectly perpendicular, and almoſt inſulated, forced itſelf upon my attention, which I conjectured might be a baſaltic colonade. After walking about a mile, I arrived at the foot of one of the moſt aſtoniſhing productions of volcanic combuſtion that I ever had an opportunity of obſerving. It preſented the appearance of an antient circus, formed of natural walls of baſaltes, riſing perpendicularly with ſo regular a conſtruction, that at firſt view the ſpectator cannot avoid thinking it to be the production of human induſtry and art. But human force, heightened by all the aid of mechanic powers, could never have been capable of elevating ſuch enormous maſſes. The whole muſt be regarded as the effect of a vaſt combuſtion, which, inſtead of deſtroying, has here produced appearances analogous to thoſe of a creative power."

This "grand natural monument" is very particularly deſcribed.

It is not neceſſary cloſely to follow the ſteps of M. St Fond on his return. His route was occaſionally varied, according to the attractions of different objects of curioſity.

Being deſirous of obtaining information concerning the pearl fiſhery of the river Tay, the author hired two fiſhermen, whoſe particular employment was ſearching for pearls.

"They conducted us," ſays he*, "to the river which runs in a very pure ſtream upon a bottom of ſand or pebbles, and they ſoon brought up ſeveral dozens of ſhells, from three and a half to four inches long, and a little more than two inches broad; their exterior colour was a deep brown inclining a little to green. The upper ſhell was thick, and of a fine mother of pearl colour within, ſlightly tinged with roſe colour. I regarded this ſpecies as belonging to the *mia pictorum* of Linnæus, or at leaſt as very nearly reſembling it. The fiſhers engaged to open theſe ſhells in our preſence, but ſtipulated for the reſervation of the pearls, if any ſhould be found."—"I deſired them to open the muſcles before my fellow travellers, whilſt I went

* In this extract we have taken the liberty of ſomewhat compreſſing the writer's ſtyle.

to amuſe myſelf with fiſhing ſome of them; but they were to inform me when they diſcovered any pearls. I was ſoon called, and ſhewn a very fine pearl, perfectly round and of a good colour. I looked at the ſhell and the pearl, and then told them that the pearl was not found in the muſcle ſhewed me. The fiſhers aſſured me that it was, and my companions confirmed their aſſertion. I perſiſted however, and begged them to watch more narrowly the next time. I retired a few ſteps, and ſoon after, one exclaimed, we have found another. I went up, and on examining the muſcle, pronounced that the pearl had been ſlipped into the ſhell. The fiſhers exhibited the utmoſt degree of aſtoniſhment; for it was clear I could not have obſerved their motions. My fellow-travellers, who watched them, had been deceived, ſo well practiſed were theſe men. My art appeared ſo ſupernatural, that they confeſſed the impoſition, and frankly ſhewed us other pearls which they had in reſerve for the ſame purpoſe. They were anxious to learn my ſecret, which would ſave them the pains of opening a vaſt number of ſhells to no purpoſe, for they ſeldom found above one or two in a week. As they knew no other language than the Erſe, I could explain myſelf only by ſigns and geſtures."—

"My ſecret conſiſted in examining the outſide of the muſcle, and when neither of the parts had any cavity or perforation, but preſented a ſurface ſmooth and free from calloſities, I could pronounce without being deceived, that there was no pearl in ſuch a ſhell, when the ſhell was pierced with augur-worms, and indented by other worms of the ſame kind, there were always found pearls, or at leaſt the embrios of pearls. This obſervation was the reſult of ſome inquiries in which I had been engaged a long time before, reſpecting the formation of that beautiful animal product. Buffon introduces the information which I communicated to him upon this ſubject, in his article upon pearls, page 125, vol. iv. of the *Natural Hiſtory of Minerals*."

The author relates ſome curious experiments by which pearls have been artificially produced.

At Kenmore, inquiries were made concerning an extraordinary flux and reflux of the waters of Loch Tay.—The deſire of examining the hill of Kinnoul induced the author to viſit Perth in his rout. At this place, he ſorted and packed up his collection of volcanic ſubſtances, and other mineralogical ſpecimens: but the ſubſequent fate we learn with regret, and we ſincerely condole with the author on his loſs. He ſays that Dr Swediaur kindly took on himſelf the charge of ſending them to France: but "this rich collection, the fruit of ſo much pain and ſo much pleaſure, was loſt, as well as the veſſel in which it was embarked, on the coaſt of Dunkirk. I was deprived in a moment of a treaſure to which I attached the greater value, becauſe it contained a variety of new objects highly intereſting to naturaliſts."—"Fortunately, whenever I had leiſure, I wrote exact deſcriptions of the ſpecimens I collected."

After having viſited the Univerſity of St Andrew's, the travellers returned to Edinburgh. At this city, the author became acquainted with ſome of our moſt celebrated literary characters; and he has given ſhort accounts of the eſtabliſhments of the Univerſity, of the Royal Society, and of other literary inſtitutions. He returned to London through Mancheſter, Buxton, Birmingham, Oxford, &c.

From this ſketch of their contents, ſome idea may be formed of theſe volumes.

M. St Fond travels in good humour; and the ſtyle of the narrative is eaſy as well as animated, and not ill preſerved in the tranſlation.—With regard to the large portion of the work which is devoted to mineralogical ſubjects, we obſerve an exceſſive propenſity to refer the formation of baſalt, trapp, and whinſtone, to volcanic eruptions. The author's mind is too much warped by this theory; and his deſcriptions are often incorrect,

Inſecto-Theology: or, A Demonſtration of the Being and Perfections of God, from a Conſideration of the Structure and Economy of Inſects. Illuſtrated with Copper-plates. By M. Leſſer; with Notes, by P. Lyonet. 6s. Boards. *Cadell jun. and Davies.*

SOME part of the introduction is em-

employed in proving that the ſtudy of inſects is a rational occupation. Although moral and prudential wiſdom be the great and prime concern of intelligent beings, there is not wanting time for ſpeculations on nature. The motion of ſtars, the growth of plants, the organization of animals, the modifications of brute matter, all preſent themſelves as worthy objects of ſtudy and contemplation. Each has its peculiar advantages and title to regard: if one ſtudy tends to enlarge and elevate our conceptions, another may be better ſuited to the endowments of life, and to the "bettering of man's eſtate." Yet there is abroad an opinion, engendered by preſumption and ignorance, that thoſe who buſy themſelves in the knowledge of plants, or of inſects, are at beſt but laborious triflers; philoſophers with minds as groveling and minute as the objects of their reſearch. Is aſtronomy then a ſublime ſcience, only becauſe the ſtars are placed high in the heavens; and is it a proof of a more enlarged underſtanding, to comprehend the anatomy of an elephant than that of a mouſe?

As a ſpecimen we ſhall give an extract concerning a luminous inſect in Surinam:

Shine like burning coals.—Beſides the inſects which ſhine in the night, ſuch as the glow worm, &c. there is one found in Surinam which deſerves to be known on account of its ſingularity. According to the deſcriptions which Mad. Merian gives of it, this animal, in its creeping ſtate, ſeems to have a form approaching that of our ſmall graſshoppers, but it is much larger; like them it has a long proboſcis by which it ſucks the juice from the flowers of the pomegranate, and this proboſcis remains with it all its life. After having quitted one ſkin, it changes its form, and appears under that of a large green fly like our Cicada. Its flight is then very rapid, and the noiſe it makes with its wings is like the ſound of a cymbal. Although according to the ordinary courſe of nature, an inſect, after having acquired wings, undergoes no farther change, yet this one, by the concurring teſtimony of the Indians which Mad. Merian ſays ſhe had in part verified by her own experience, undergoes ſtill a tranſformation which renders it luminous, and which then procures it the name of the lantern fly. (Fulgora Laternaria Lin.) In this laſt tranſformation, beſides other inconſiderable changes which happen to its body and wings, there iſſues, from the forepart of its head, a very long tranſparent bladder, coloured with reddiſh and greeniſh ſtreaks, and which diffuſes a light ſufficient to enable a perſon to read pretty ſmall print. This animal, by the deſcription ſhe gives of it, is then about four inches long, and the bladder occupies about a fourth of its whole length. Before Mad. Merian was acquainted with the luminous quality of this inſect, the Indians brought her many of them which ſhe ſhut up in a large box. Being alarmed one night with a ſingular noiſe which ſhe heard in the houſe, ſhe got up, lighted a candle, and went to ſee what it was. The noiſe came from the box; ſhe opened it, and immediately there iſſued a flame, which increaſed her emotion, and made her throw down the box, whence there was now diſperſed a new beam of light, as each animal got out of it. We may believe her fear did not long continue, but ſoon gave place to admiration, and ſhe immediately ſet herſelf to regain animals ſo extraordinary, which had taken advantage of the fear they had occaſioned to make their eſcape."

The preſent work conſpicuouſly diſplays the piety of the author, and the extenſive knowledge of his annotator; and it ſeems well calculated to anſwer the end for which the editor deſigned it.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

LONDON.

Theology.

Lectures on Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory; to which is added, an Eſſay on Chriſtian Temperance and Self Denial, by the late George Campbell, D. D. with ſome Account of his Life and Writings, by the Rev. G. S. Keith, 2 vols. 8vo. 16s. 6d. *Johnſon.*

Summary of the evidence of the Truth of the Chriſtian Revelation, by the Biſhop of London, 1s. 6d. *Cadell and Davies.*

Hiſtory.

The Hiſtory of the Helvetic Confederacy from its Origin to its late Diſ-

folution, by Joſeph Planta, Eſq. 2 vols. 4to. *Stockdale.*

Two Hiſtoric Diſſertations, on the Sileſian War, and on the Character and Conduct of Louis XVI. by William Bellham, 4to. and 8vo. *Robinſons.*

Medical.

Medical Facts and Obſervations, volume the eighth, 4s. 6d. boards. *Cadell.*

Tranſactions of a Society for the improvement of Medical and Chirurgical Knowledge, vol. 2. 7s. 6d. boards. *Johnſon.*

Conſiderations relative to Pulmonary Conſumptions, by Thomas Sutton, M. D. Phyſician to the Forces, 3s. *Robinſons.*

Poetry.

The Farmer's Boy, a rural Poem, by Robert Bloomfield, embelliſhed with cuts, 5s. boards. *Vernor and Hood.*

The Fables of John Gay, illuſtrated with Notes, by W. Coxe, A. M. F. R. S. F. A. S. &c. 12mo. 2s. *Croſby and Letterman.*

Politics.

Effectual Means of providing againſt the Diſtreſs apprehended from the Scarcity of different Articles of Food; by George Edwards, Eſq. 1s. *Johnſon.*

Thoughts on Capital Puniſhment, by Hugh Wade Grey, M. A. 1s. *Robinſons.*

Conſiderations on the increaſe of the Poor Rates, and on the State of the Workhouſe in Kingſton-upon Hull; to which is added a ſhort Account of the Improvements in the Maintenance of the Poor of that Town, 2s. *Robinſons.*

The Eleventh Report of the Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor. 1s. *Hatchard.*

Thoughts on the Corn-Trade; or, Propoſals for eſtabliſhing Regulations, by which the buyer and ſeller would equally know, at all times, the Quantity of Grain in the Kingdom; by a Corn-dealer, 6d. *Debrett.*

The Queſtion of Scarcity plainly ſtated, and Remedies conſidered; with Obſervations on Permanent Meaſures to keep Wheat at a more regular Price; by Arthur Young, Eſq. 2s. *Richardſons.*

A Diſſertation Moral and Political on the Influence of Luxury and Refinement on Nations; with Reflections on the Manners of the Age at the cloſe of the Eighteenth Century; by Adam Sibbit, A. B. of Jamaica, 4s. boards. *Cadell and Davies.*

Miſcellaneous Literature.

A Treatiſe on the Cultivation of Larch and Scotch Fir Timber, with Directions for Planting in various Soils and Situations, by W. Pontney, nurſeryman of Huddersfield, 3s. *Mawman.*

An Enquiry into the Elementary Principles of Beauty in the Works of Nature and Art, to which is prefixed an Introductory Diſcourſe on Taſte, by William Thomſon, 4to. 18s. boards. *Johnſon.*

The Critical and Miſcellaneous Proſe Works of John Dryden, now firſt collected, with Notes and Illuſtrations: the Life of the Author, and a Collection of his Letters, the greater part of which has never before been publiſhed, by Edmund Malone, Eſq. 4s. boards. 8vo. *Cadell and Davies.*

Epiſtle from the Marquis de la Fayette to General Waſhington, 2s. *Longman and Rees.*

Letters from his Excellency George Waſhington, to Sir John Sinclair, Bart. on *Agricultural* and other intereſting Topics, engraved from the Original, ſo as to be an exact fac-ſimile, 4to. 1l. 1s. 2l. 2s. 5l. 5s. *Nicol.*

Obſervations on a Tour through the Highlands, and part of the Weſtern Iſles of Scotland: to which are added, a Deſcription of the Falls of the Clyde, of the Country round Moffat, and an Anylaſis of its Mineral Waters; by T. Garnett, M. D. Profeſſor of Philoſophy in the Royal Inſtitution, 2 vols. 4to. Illuſtrated with a Map, and with 52 fine Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. *Cadell and Davies.*

Journal of a Voyage performed in the Lion Indiaman, from Madraſs to Columbo and De Lagon Bay, on the Eaſtern Coaſt of Africa, in the Year 1798; by Captain William White, 73d Regiment. 4to 7s. Boards. *Stockdale.*

An Account of an Embaſſy to the Kingdom of Ava, ſent by the Governor General of India in the Year 1795, to negociate a treaty with the Sovereigns of that extenſive Empire; by Major Michael Symes, 76th Regiment, with 28 Plates. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. *Nichol.*

Memoirs relative to Egypt, written by the learned and ſcientific Men who accompanied the Expedition of Buonaparte, and publiſhed at Paris, by his orders,

orders, and under the direction of the National Inſtitute. 8vo. 8s. 6d. Boards. *Philips.*

A Narrative of the Expedition to Holland, in the year 1799, with Maps, Views, &c. by E. Walth, M. D. 4to. 1l. 1s. boards. *Robinſons.*

A Natural Hiſtory of the Inſects of India, and the Iſlands in the Indian Seas, by E. Donovan, F. R. S. No 1. *Rivingtons.*

An Hiſtorical and Practical Eſſay on the Culture and Commerce of Tobacco, by Wm Tatham, 6s. boards. *Vernor and Hood.*

The Principles of Hydroſtatics, deſigned for the Uſe of Students in the Univerſities, by the Rev. S. Vince, A. M. F. R. S. Plumian Profeſſor of Aſtronomy and Experimental Philoſophy, at Cambridge; the ſecond edition, 8vo. 3s. *Lunn.*

A correct alphabetical liſt of the Magazines, Reviews, and other Monthly Publications which exiſt at this time in London.

	s.	d.
Army Liſt - - ſells at	1	0
Anderſon's Recreations in Agriculture - - -	1	6
Anti-Jacobin Review -	2	0
Arminian Magazine -	0	6
Britiſh Critic Review -	2	0
Britiſh Magazine - -	1	6
Britannic ditto - -	1	0
Botanical ditto - -	1	0
Critical Review - -	2	0
Chirurgical ditto - -	1	6
Commercial Magazine -	1	0
Copper-plate ditto -	1	0
Donovan's Britiſh Inſects -	1	0
——— Shells - -	2	6
European Magazine -	1	6
——— Repertory -	2	0
Evangelical Magazine -	0	6
Faſhions of London and Paris	1	6
Gentleman's Magazine -	1	6
German Muſeum - -	1	6
Goſpel Magazine -	0	6
General Baptiſt's ditto -	0	6
Hiſtorical ditto - -	1	6
London Review - -	1	6
London Medical Magazine	1	6
Lady's Magazine - -	1	0
Lady's Muſeum - -	1	0
Monthly Review - -	2	0
——— Magazine -	1	6
——— Preceptor -	1	0
——— Mirror - -	1	0
——— Epitome -	0	6
——— Viſitor - -	1	0
Medical and Phyſical Journal	2	0
Military Journal - -	2	6
Naval Biography -	2	0
—— Chronicle - -	2	6
—— Magazine - -	1	0
Navy Liſt - -	0	6
Naturaliſt's Miſcellany -	2	0
Nicholſon's Journal -	2	6
Philoſophical Magazine -	2	0
Repertory of Arts -	1	6
Sowerby's Botany -	5	0
Sporting Magazine - -	1	0
Univerſal ditto - -	1	6
Young's Annals of Agriculture	2	0
Zoological Magazine -	1	0

EDINBURGH.

Six Sermons, preached in Charlotte Chapel, Edinburgh, by the Rev. Sidney Smith, A. M. and Fellow of New College, Oxford. 3s. 6d. boards. *Manners and Miller.*

The Claim of the Miniſters of the Church of Scotland, to an Exemption from Taxes on their Livings. By a Member of the Church of Scotland. 6d. ſtitched. *G. Gray.*

Neoſlogy; A Syſtematic Arrangement of Diſeaſes, by Claſſes, Orders, Genera, and Species, with the diſtinguiſhing Character of each. Alſo outlines of the Syſtems of Sauvage, Linnæus, Vogel, Sagar, and Macbride. Tranſlated from the Original Latin of William Cullen, M. D. late Profeſſor of the Practice of Phyſic in the Univerſity of Edinburgh, &c. &c. 8vo. 6s. boards. *Creech.*

POETRY.

FOR THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

ODE TO SPRING.

TO groves where, late with furious ſtrife
Rude Boreas ſtript the verdant trees,
We turn, to feel the ſweets of life,
And catch again the fragrant breeze.

No more we fly the howling ſtorm
To taſte the joys the city yields;
Where vice, in many a ſpecious form,
Allures the heart fair virtue ſhields.

The languid eye no longer views
  Stern Winter's desolating pow'r;
It brightens as the Spring renews
  Each tender plant and blooming flow'r.

Come Fancy, tread the flow'ry glade,
  To joy let's give the sportive day;
Or court the Muses' sacred shade,
  Blest with Apollo's genial ray.

To thee, sweet Spring, the warbling throng
  Address their soft enchanting lays;
Thy Zephyrs mild the strains prolong,
  And wanton thro' the blossom'd sprays.

On busy wing Time silent flies,
  Nor stops—to bless us with thy stay;
And Summer-sweets, and blooming skies
  But hasten Winter's dreary sway.

While beauty blooms in life's gay Spring,
  Let Virtue fire the opening mind;
Then nought can Age, life's Winter, bring
  To chase the peace we wish to find.

Improve, with care, each passing hour,
  Ere youthful vigour leave the breast;
Ere Age exert it's dead'ning pow'r,
  And lay the active mind at rest.

VERSES

Written by a YOUTH, *a short Time after leaving his Father's House in the Country.*

ROMANTIC groves, sequester'd shades,
  Where peace and plenty smil'd;
Amid whose calm retreats I liv'd,
  Contentment's favour'd child:

How oft I trod the verdant lawns,
  That terminate the plain;
Or wander'd up the craggy steep,
  That fronts the distant main.

How oft, in summer's burning heat,
  Have sought the cool recess;
Where fancy once indulg'd a thought
  Of future happiness.

Or, by my dear Castalio's* side,
  Whom friendship taught to love,
Pursu'd the devious woodland track,
  Or pierc'd the thickest grove.

Castalio with engaging speech,
  A generous heart combin'd;
Nor pride nor interest could change
  The feelings of his mind.

How happy then the moments past,
  With sorrow unalloy'd;
Yet still I sigh'd for more, nor felt
  The blessings I enjoy'd.

But when, o'er Biscay's stormy seas,
  My friend Castalio fail'd;
The Charms of Devon ceas'd to please;
  The verdant landscape fail'd.

No more I stray'd along the downs,
  By Luna's silver beam;
Nor on the bank's where Isca roils†,
  Her clear meand'ring stream.

No more I view'd fair Exwick meads
  With pleasure and delight;
For he, whose friendship tun'd my soul,
  Was distant from my sight.

But, though depriv'd of one resource,
  Still friends were left behind,
Who claim'd a share in all the griefs
  That weigh'd upon my mind.

But now, bereft of parents, friends,
  Reflection pains my heart;
Nor London's fancied joys can soothe,
  Or former peace impart.

Sustain'd alone with pleasing hopes,
  To view those peaceful bowers;
Where once, contemplative, I pass'd
  My happy, vacant hours.

Again to visit those lov'd scenes,
  Then, in some rural cot
Resign all transient, wordly joys,
  And bless my future lot.

* A youth of his own age, with whom he was intimate.

† The river Exe.

THE FRANTIC LOVER

BY THE LATE GEORGE STEEVENS, ESQ.

AND shall, then, another embrace thee, my fair;
Must envy still add to the pangs of despair,
Shall I live to behold the reciprocal bless?
Death, death is a refuge—Elysium to this!

The star of the evening now bids thee retire:—
Accurs'd be its orb, and extinguish'd its fire;
For it shews me my rival prepar'd to invade
Those charms which at once I admir'd and obey'd!

Far off each forbidding incumbrance is thrown,
And, Sally, thy beauties no more are thy own;
Thy coyness, too, flies, as love brings to thy view
A trance more ecstatic than saint ever knew!

And yet I behold thee, tho' longing to die,
Approach the new heav'n with a tear and a sigh;
For, oh, the fond sigh 'mid enjoyment will stray—
And a tear is the tribute which rapture must pay.

Still, still, dost thou tremble that pleasure to seek
Which pants on thy bosom and glows on thy cheek;

Confuſion and ſhame thy ſoft wiſhes deſtroy—
And terror cuts off the weak bloſſom of joy.
Ah, had I been bleſt with thy beauty, my fair,
With fondeſt attention—with delicate care
My heart would have tried all thy fears to remove,
And pluck'd ev'ry thorn from the roſes of love?

My inſolent rival, more proud of his right,
Contemns the ſweet office—that ſoul of delight!
Leſs tender he ſeizes thy lips as his prey—
And all thy dear limbs the rough ſummons obey!

E'en now more licentious!—Raſh mortal, forbear—
Reſtrain him, O Venus!—Let him, too, deſpair!
Freeze, freeze the ſwift ſtreams which now hurry to join—
And curſe him with paſſions unſated like mine!

How weak is thy rage his fierce joy to controul!—
A kiſs from thy body ſhoots life to his ſoul!
Thy froſt, too, diſſolv'd, in one current is run—
And all thy keen feelings are blended in one!

Thy limbs from his limbs a new warmth ſhall acquire,
His paſſions from thine ſhall redouble their fire;
'Till wreck'd and o'erwhelm'd in the ſtorm of delight,
Thine ears loſe their hearing—thine eyes loſe their ſight!

Here conqueſt muſt pauſe (tho' it ne'er can be cloy'd)
To view the rich plunder of beauty enjoy'd!
The treſſes diſhevell'd, the boſom diſplay'd—
And the wiſhes of years in a moment repaid!

A thouſand ſoft thoughts in thy fancy combine;
A thouſand wild horrors aſſemble in mine!
Relieve me, kind death; ſhut the ſcene from my view—
And ſave me; O, ſave me, ere madneſs enſue!

VALEDICTORY ELEGY TO MARY.

Written on the Eve of the Author's intended Departure for the Weſt Indies.

'TIS come! 'tis come! the fatal hour is come,
That dooms to endleſs miſery my heart;
Sad thoughts be ſtill!—ye ſtruggling woes be dumb!
But, Mary, no! I'll bleſs thee ere we part!

Ah! in theſe ſoften'd eyes delighted gaze,
Why did love's flame ſo early beam confeſt?
Too oft, alas! my boſom's heave betrays
The penſive anguiſh of my hopeleſs breaſt!

Why from my boſom breaks this fault'ring ſigh?
In ſighs, alas! relief in vain I ſeek:
In vain the tear that fills my ſorrowing eye
Bedews the ſadden'd ſurface of my cheek!

Ah! when the fates have torn me from her breaſt,
Tho' love's ſad reverie no hope can bring,
Still—ſtill I'll think how oft her charms I've preſs'd,
And to ſoft fleeted tranſports fondly cling!

But why indulge the ſoul conſuming theme,
Ah! ſoon I'll languiſh on a diſtant ſhore,
Hope quits my breaſt!—ah! now its trembling gleam
Tells me we part to meet, alas! no more!

How oft her ſmile will charm my fancied ſight,
How oft this ſtruggling fondneſs will prevail;
And oft love's ſigh, diſturbing Nature's night,
Will murm'ring riſe upon the wafting gale!

At eve, when Cynthia ſheds her lucid rays,
With penſive ſtep and chearleſs heart I'll rove,
My tear ſwol'n eyes to Heaven I'll oft upraiſe,
And ſue its bleſſings on my boſom's love!

And when kind Heav'n, regardful of my woe
Shall huſh my ſorrows in the ſleep of death,
Love's tear will fall; and as mine eye-lids cloſe,
Her name ſhall die upon my parting breath!

BRI-

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Continued from p. 278.

Feb. 25. *Lord Hawkeſbury*, having moved that a Committee of the whole Houſe ſhould, on this day ſe'nnight, take into conſideration the Report of the Committee appointed to inveſtigate the ſtate of the Corn of the country, moved alſo, that on the ſaid day ſuch Committee do deliver in the report of ſuch inveſtigation.—Ordered.

27. The Bill for granting to his Majeſty the ſum of 20,500,000l. on Loan, by way of annuity, was read a firſt time.

The Bill for increaſing the Duty on Home and Foreign Spirits, and upon Teas exceeding in value 2s. 6d. per lb. was read a firſt time.

28. *Mr Tierney*, roſe to make his promiſed motion concerning the War. He took a comprehenſive view of the ſeveral States of Europe and their contending intereſts, and ſhewed how little their cauſe was ours. He then entered into a very long and argumentative ſtrain on the conduct of his Majeſty's Miniſters, and concluded with moving, "That it is neither juſt or neceſſary to continue the War for the purpoſe of reſtoring the Bourbon family to the throne of France."

The motion being ſeconded,

Mr Elliott oppoſed it, and maintained the propriety, the wiſdom, and the neceſſity of carrying on the War; and therefore, to prevent a deciſion on a motion that muſt commit the country, he would move the previous queſtion.

The Houſe divided on the previous queſtion—ayes, 142; noes, 34—Majority againſt the original motion, 108.

March 5. The Loan Bill and the New Taxes Bill were read a third time, and ordered to the Lords.

6. *Lord Hawkeſbury* brought up the Report of the Corn Committee.—Referred to the Committee of the whole Houſe appointed to conſider farther of the preſent ſcarcity.

Lord Sheffield gave notice of his intention of moving for leave to bring in a Bill to remedy the deficiency of the meaſures already adopted for preventing the miſchiefs likely to enſue from the preſent ſcarcity.

17. The Houſe in a Committee on the Bill for granting a Bounty on Corn imported,

Mr Thornton, after a few obſervations on the tendency of the meaſure in agitation, moved, "That in the importation of Corn from the Baltic, the Bounties already granted, according to the regular publications in the London Gazette, ſhould be extended in the due proportion under 85s. as they are at preſent under 90s. the quarter."

This was oppoſed by Mr Jeffery, who entered into a detail to ſhew, that it would afford no inducement to the foreigner to ſend his corn, or to the native to import it, and proceeded to ſtate, that we could not expect any corn or flour from America through it.

Lord Hawkeſbury replied, and in arguments forcible and convincing, eſtabliſhed the principle that it was not a bounty for importing corn or flour that prevailed in the Bill, but that it was to operate as an indemnity againſt loſs to the merchant, whoſe laudable ſpeculation urged him to make ventures in favour of the country; and concluded with obſerving, that to his knowledge orders were already given and anſwered that would meet every neceſſity of the country, and infinitely more, till the end of the enſuing harveſt.

A ſhort converſation then took place, after which the Report was ordered, and the Houſe reſumed.

20. *Mr W. Dundas*, after noticing the preſſing wants of Scotland, where *nine-tenths* of the people, he obſerved, lived chiefly on oaten bread, moved, that the Houſe ſhould reſolve itſelf into a Committee of the whole Houſe on Wedneſday next, to conſider of granting a bounty on Oats and Oatmeal imported.—Ordered.

Mr Sec. Dundas moved for leave to bring in a Bill to exempt ALL perſons employed in Volunteer Corps, of every deſcription, from the Hair Powder Tax, and to indemnify ſuch of them as had neglected to take out a licence for wearing hair powder. He alſo ſaid, that it was his intention, that all horſes employed in Volunteer Corps ſhould be exempted from tax; but when the owner had others, that the tax upon the reſt ſhould be proportioned to the whole number.

21. The Bill for the Renewal of the Charter

Charter of the Bank of England was read a third time, and ordered to the Lords.

April 17. On the motion of Mr Rose, the order of the day for the house to resolve itself into a committee, to consider of his majesty's message relative to the Irish union, was discharged, in consequence of the indisposition of the chancellor of the exchequer, and the consideration fixed for Monday next.

Mr Grey moved, that an humble address be presented to his Majesty, praying that he would be pleased to direct that there be laid before the house an account of the number of offices, together with the salaries and emoluments actually held by members of the present Irish parliament.

After a few remarks from Mr Rose, the motion was agreed to, and the address ordered to be presented by such members of the house as were of his Majesty's most honourable privy council.

New Income Tax.

Mr Rose moved to discharge the order of the day for the second reading of the Income Bill. He stated, that several alterations and modifications were deemed necessary, and therefore proposed to defer the second reading till to-morrow se'nnight.

Mr Tierney reprobated the conduct of the minister in very harsh terms. He accused the chancellor of the exchequer of precipitating the measure in the first instance, and breaking through the established forms of the house. Afterward, when he became convinced that the face of the country was directly against it, the minister sought to take all the credit of its retraction upon himself, and left the house to struggle with its disgrace and unpopularity. The bill, he contended, had been brought into parliament in a very unconstitutional manner. The chancellor of the exchequer had represented it as a bill that went merely to explain and amend the act of last sessions; whereas it virtually imposed a new tax upon the country, by the repeal of the provisions granting a deduction for the assessed taxes. As such, the forms of the house required that it should previously have passed through a committee of supply. This necessary preliminary not being observed, the bill was rendered null and vitiated in its very outset. The minister had entrapped the house, and taken them by surprise; he had professed one thing, and brought forward another. He had tricked the house into a procedure, which entailed upon them all the odium of the measure, and had made the Commons of Great Britain a party to a transaction, which must inevitably lessen the dignity of parliament. What must the country at large think of the conduct of members in that house, who could, by suffering so odious a bill to go through the formality of a first reading, make it their own act and deed; and now, when the universal voice of the nation was against the measure, endeavour to escape the opprobium they had entailed upon themselves by altering and modifying the bill? For his own part, he had uniformly professed himself an enemy to every tax on income; and he now gave notice of his intention to move on this day se'nnight for the repeal of the income tax altogether.

The *Speaker* acquiesced in the validity of the objections stated by the hon. gentleman (Mr Tierney) supposing, as he made no doubt, that the hon. gentleman was accurate in his statement. In that light it certainly went to impose a new tax on the subject, and, as such ought to have gone through a previous committee.

Mr Rose did not deny that the objection stated, relative to the informality of the proceedings, was valid, but insisted that no unfair advantage had been sought by his right honourable friend.

Lord Hawkesbury did not conceive it necessary that a minister in bringing forward a bill to explain and amend a former act, the principle of which had been approved of by a large majority of the house, should go into the detail of all and several his intended regulations. He thought it fair, that every mover of a bill should avail himself of all subsequent information on the subject, whether communicated in public or in private.

Mr Jolnes declared his firm conviction that nine-tenths of the country thought the bill, as it now stood, ought to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman.

Mr W. Smith, after observing that the bill was more inquisitorial and oppressive than any financial measure adopted by the French rulers, moved an amend-

ment.

ment, that the bill be read a second time this day fix months.

Mr Joliffe seconded the motion, which was ſtrenuouſly combated by Mr Buxton.

Mr Grey ſaid, that, by withdrawing the preſent bill, the income act would remain exactly as it now ſtands. It would not be abrogated, and of courſe the country would be no loſers. He thought it the more direct way to come to the vote at once on the queſtion for the ſecond reading, and wiſhed his hon. friend to withdraw his motion of poſtponement.

Mr Sheridan agreed that the preſent was not the proper ſtage to diſcuſs the merits of the bill, on the one hand, but it was equally irregular to expatiate on its application toward the ſuppreſſion of crimes and enormities, on the other. It was evident that the forms of the houſe had been infringed upon. It was evident that a new tax had been introduced, under pretence of regulating the old one. He was amazed that any gentleman ſhould talk of taking the houſe by ſurpriſe on the preſent occaſion. The bill had not only been printed, but had been univerſally publiſhed in the newſpapers all over the kingdom. If the facts advanced by his hon. friend (Mr Tierney) were true, of which he entertained no ſhadow of doubt, the bill ought not to be proceeded on; it ought to be withdrawn, on account of its informality.

Mr Roſe wiſhed a little time might be allowed, for the purpoſe of maturely deliberating whether the bill was actually vitiated by ſuch informality. He deprecated a raſh and haſty vote on a ſubject of ſuch great importance, and was perſuaded that none but thoſe who diſapproved of the bill *in toto* would vote for the amendment.

Mr Tierney acknowledged that he approved of no one ſingle clauſe in the bill, except the very laſt, which left it open for repeal. To carry it into effect it would be abſolutely neceſſary to have recourſe to meaſures inconſiſtent with the conſtitution of a free country. Honeſt men, in middling circumſtances, were compelled to render ſtrict account, while men, who were amaſſing large and rapid fortunes, had an opportunity of evading it. He wiſhed to mark, in ſtrong and decided characters, his reſentment of the conduct purſued in this bill. No ſimilar precedent was to be found. He had already ſtated that it impoſed a new tax, by the repeal of the proviſion allowing a deduction for the aſſeſſed taxes. If his memory did not deceive him, it operated to the ſame effect in another ſhape, with reſpect to the land tax. It certainly was not much in favour of the bill, that, with the exception of a noble lord, no one had directly and explicitly defended it.

Mr W. Smith ſaid, as he ſhould have ſeveral opportunities of expreſſing his ſentiments on this bill, he had no objection whatever to withdraw his motion.

The queſtion being put, the amendment of Mr Smith was allowed to be withdrawn. The original queſtion was then put, 'that the bill be read a ſecond time to-morrow ſe'nnight.'

Mr Grey ſaid, that he had ſo many fundamental objections to the bill, that he could not but wiſh that it it had been diſmiſſed or withdrawn. Some gentlemen on the other ſide had talked of unfairneſs; but, in his opinion, the unfairneſs reſted with thoſe who had brought in a bill profeſſing 'to explain and amend' the act of laſt year, when it went in fact to defeat and contradict the proviſions of that act. In the bill of laſt year, a protection was afforded to the commercial intereſt; but by the preſent bill, the affairs of commercial men were made as open to diſcloſure as thoſe of any deſcription of perſons. This was evidently contrary to the intention of the houſe, and he ſhould therefore oppoſe the ſecond reading of the bill.

The *Maſter of the Rolls* ſaid, that, in conſequence of the groſs evaſions which had been practiſed, ſome regulations were abſolutely neceſſary. In the progreſs of the bill, he had no doubt but that theſe checks and guards might be made in ſuch a manner as not to violate the principle of the bill.

Mr Sheridan ſaid, that this was in every reſpect a new bill. The houſe were now as much maſters of that fact as they could be on any future occaſion. He had expreſſed his wiſh, that on account of its informality, it ſhould be withdrawn; but as this had not been done, he ſhould vote againſt the motion.

The queſtion being put, the numbers were,

were, ayes, 85; noes, 20; majority for the ſecond reading on Friday ſe'nnight 65.

18. The *Speaker* called the attention of the houſe to what had paſſed yeſterday, in the debate on the income tax. He had previouſly given to the ſubject his beſt attention, and he was now confirmed in his opinion that there were proviſions in the bill which of neceſſity ſhould have paſſed through a committee of the whole houſe. This objection to the bill had very forcibly ſtruck his mind on peruſing it in the country, and on his return he had conſidered the ſubject, and conſulted thoſe who were beſt qualified to give information. It was his wiſh, as it was his duty, to preſerve inviolate the forms of the houſe, but he did not think it neceſſary to announce this objection in the abſence of the mover of the bill. He had now no heſitation to ſay that the bill would be withdrawn, and that a new bill ſhould be introduced, founded on reſolutions, to be previouſly ſubmitted to a committee.

Mr Long acquieſced in this opinion, and the order for reading the bill on Friday next, was in conſequence diſcharged.

Mr Tierney aroſe to vindicate himſelf, and the part which he had taken in yeſterday's debate. He did not mean to tax any unfair advantage, and, in fact, it now appeared that the objection which he had urged was one which could not have been overturned, if the chancellor of the exchequer had been preſent.

The *Speaker* ſaid, that it was not his wiſh to give a preference to any individual whatever. If he had not more ſtrongly interfered in the firſt inſtance, the reaſon was, that he felt ſome difficulty in coming forward in the abſence of the mover of the bill.

Mr Long then gave notice, that, on Friday next he ſhould move for leave to bring in a bill to explain and amend the two income acts of laſt year.

Union with Ireland.

April 21. The order of the day being read for conſidering the meſſage on the union,

Mr Pitt roſe and ſaid, as the ſentiments of this and the other houſe of parliament, already expreſſed their ſenſe of the adoption of the meaſure of its general principle, it was now his duty to lay before the houſe, without farther recapitulation, and within one comprehenſive ſcope, the complete views of the governments of both countries, which, in compliance with his Majeſty's moſt gracious meſſage, had been conſidered as fit to ſubmit to parliament, and here conſented to already.

The vaſt and momentuous ſyſtem to be propoſed, important as it was, no leſs for the reſtoration and eſtabliſhment of tranquillity in the ſiſter kingdom, than by an everlaſting and united connection of legiſlative and natural ſtrength, to increaſe the power and aſcendancy of the whole empire, and thereby place it on a baſis beyond continental artifice to diſturb, or the intrigues of foreign and domeſtic foes of any deſcription to annoy, required that ſerene and ſteady regard which abundantly apologized for whatever treſpaſs he might commit on the indulgence and patience of the houſe, and, therefore, without farther preface, he would ſubmit generally a few obſervations, which a matter of ſuch magnitude demanded.

The firſt great conſideration which naturally preſented itſelf, would be that of the public good; but as this ſeemed leſs an object than public ſentiment, he would previouſly advert to that, leaving the abſtract principle of public good as it were remote, till he had convinced the houſe and the country that he poſſeſſed the public opinion, the public ſentiment, and the public accord, in the meaſure, as redounding to the public good. And here he felt no leſs honoured than gratified in announcing, that before the government of either kingdom ventured to propoſe or patronize the project, it was generally ſubmitted throughout the whole kingdom of Ireland, and the event juſtified the expectations of his Majeſty's miniſters in the fulleſt extent; for it was found, that the more the queſtion was diſcuſſed, the better it was known and liked, until diſtruſt became confidence, and diſlike became approbation; and finally, until thoſe moſt intereſted in the real intereſt of their country univerſally fought and courted its compleſion. The great body of the landed intereſt of that kingdom were in favour of it, and its two houſes of parliament addreſſed his Majeſty in ſupport of it. Of the landed property three-

fourths,

fourths, and of the number of counties five fevenths, by their public and corporate acts, defired and implored it. As far as unanimity could be expected among the jarring opinions of men at an early day, thus ſtood the public opinion in Ireland on the queſtion. All the great commercial towns, except Dublin and Drogheda, had declared ſtrenuouſly in favour of it.—But he could not avoid obſerving, that the citizens of thoſe towns expreſſed their apprehenſions in the ſame way that the Scots did on the eve of their union, who inhabited Edinburgh; while at the ſame time he truſted that, like them, the citizens of Dublin would, at no very diſtant day, return their grateful acknowledgments to Providence, for the bleſſing beſtowed. On the diſcuſſion of the Scotch union the table of the parliament was covered, day after day, with petitions againſt it; public clamour in Ireland adopted, through inveterate partizans, the ſame means, and artifice was not wanting to impede it. The Scottiſh parliament on that occaſion, however, acted as the Iriſh parliament did now, and as ſatisfaction and welfare attended the perſeverance of the one, ſo he truſted happineſs and advantage would reſult to the determined ſpirit of the other. Inſtead of a ſelect committee, where partial diſcuſſion might be ſuppoſed to prevail, he deemed it more conducive to the advantage and importance of the cauſe to conſider it in the abſtract, and in the detail, by a committee of the whole houſe; whereby the fulleſt latitude of diſcuſſion would be afforded to every gentleman, and the houſe would derive that profit thereby, which could not fail to be uſeful to the intereſts of the empire. To the committee the right hon. gentleman obſerved, he would ſubmit the ſeveral reſolutions of the Iriſh parliament, then already before the houſe, and which were founded upon principles already adopted by that houſe, and laid at the foot of the throne, but extending ſomewhat more into detail, ſo as to form, when agreed upon, ſo many articles of the propoſed union. The courſe of the proceedings would then amount to this—Great Britain propoſed to hold certain principles on which to found an union; Ireland adopted thoſe principles, and propoſes reſolutions founded upon them; on which reſolutions ſhould the Britiſh parliament agree, the articles of union ſhall be founded and formed by the agreement of both legiſlatures and their common monarch, with an irrevocable and ſolemn legiſlative act.

The right hon. gentleman then proceeded to ſtate the ſeveral reſolutions in their order, beginning with the firſt, and commenting upon each in their order. The firſt reſolution, containing the general principle; the ſecond relating to the ſucceſſion of the monarch; and the third, containing five ſpecific heads, the principal whereof that might excite conſideration here, as operating like innovation, was that of adding 100 members into the Britiſh Houſe of Commons. He took the proportion from a combination of that of the revenue and population of Ireland, taken together and compared with that of Great Britain, which being as about ten to two, conſtituted the number 100 a due proportion to 558. Of theſe, 68 were ſent from the principal towns and counties, the reſt from the principal boroughs. We had two precedents that this kind of change never injured the rights of the Britiſh parliament, viz. that of uniting Wales, and that of uniting Scotland; and he truſted the third would have the ſame effect. Of peers there were to be 28 temporal, and four ſpiritual; and liberty to thoſe not elected for parliament to ſit in the houſe of commons, if returned to ſerve in parliament. This number of the peerage correſponded with the ſame proportion.

The church of Ireland, as by law eſtabliſhed, was to be continued unvaried, only that the biſhops there ſhould be ſubject to convocations here. It was alſo an objection very generally urged, for like purpoſes, that an Imperial Parliament, not having the advantage of local knowledge, would be incapable to preſerve the tranquillity of Ireland. Very deficient in diſcernment and common underſtanding indeed, muſt thoſe individuals therefore be to whom that country would conſign the powers of legiſlative repreſentation in the imperial parliament, if, in the very extended number of 100, there did not exiſt local knowledge ſufficient for the neceſſary purpoſes of their country. In retroſpect to paſt expences, Ireland was to have no con-

cern whatever with the debt of Great Britain. For it would be equally ungenerous and unjuſt to impoſe upon her a charge, when a reciprocity of advantage could not be annexed to it. Ireland did not ſhare any of thoſe benefits which England derived during the period when this debt was incurred, and conſequently ought not to partake of any of her burden incurred during that period. But henceforward the two countries were to unite as to future expences on a ſtrict meaſure of mutually relative ability. It certainly would have been a matter of much gratification if the two countries could have been ſo completely incorporated as no longer to have diſtinct revenues, which in the Scotch Union was of ſuch importance, that every effort was made to equalize the circumſtances of the two countries for that purpoſe. At that time England had a heavy debt, Scotland had none charged on her revenue:—a calculation was therefore made of the ſum to be paid to Scotland as an indemnity for accepting a ſhare of that debt; and England paid it accordingly. So that, except in the inſtance of the land-tax, the taxation of the two countries was fixed at the ſame proportion; but on the preſent queſtion, this ſyſtem cannot be adopted; conſequently the reſpective debts of the two countries muſt remain diſtinct, and of courſe, their taxation muſt continue ſeparate. To find the ſum which Ireland ſhall henceforth ſubſcribe toward the imperial expenditure, we muſt look to her relative powers; that teſt lies in the relative commercial wealth of both nations, and the relative expences of both, and hence the relative abilities of both countries.

For which purpoſe it will appear, that by taking the imports and exports of Ireland for the laſt three years, at the ſum of 10,925,000l. and that of Great Britain at 73,961,000l. (a proportion of ſomewhat more than ſeven to one) and the exciſe of Ireland for the like period at 5,954,000l. and that of Great Britain at 26,891,000l. the reſult of the two together, would conſequently aſſume the *ratio* of the ability of Great Britain to that of Ireland, at ſeven and a half to one. As to any community of property in revenue from the territorial acquiſitions of this country, if it ſhould be objected that either the one nation or the other did not derive their juſt proportion, it is to be obſerved, that ſuch an objection is at once obviated by the power propoſed to be given to the imperial parliament, of reviſing it on principles of mutual reciprocity in 20 years hence; and that no article ſhould at any time be ſubject to a higher tax than the ſame paid in Great Britain.

The next proviſion would be, that any ſupplies of the conſolidated fund of Ireland might be applied to purpoſes of local improvement, or accumulate to form a fund for war contributions, or other exigencies of the empire. By this arrangement her immediate expences being reduced, ſhe would be leſs likely to incur future debt, and more capable of contributing to the general aid. The laſt and leaſt important article was that of eſtabliſhing the courts of admiralty and judicature as before the union, ſaving only the right of appeal to the imperial parliament. Having thus proceeded through the whole of the reſolutions, he went on to a general comment on the advantages reſulting from the union.

He obſerved in pointed terms, that the great object of one common legiſlature for both countries was the eſtabliſhment of the identity of the executive. On all the great and important queſtions of peace, war, and treaties, when agitated, what ſituation did that country preſent to view? The anſwer is plain; to avoid ſeparation ſhe was bound even without deliberation, to adopt the conduct and follow the courſe preſcribed, and purſued by Great Britain. If in any ſhape the term 'colony' could be with effect applied to that country, it would be faithfully applied to it in its preſent ſtate.

If it were required in him to ſpecify the great radical advantages reſulting to both countries, particularly to Ireland, from an incorporate union, he would aver that the chief and comprehenſive benefit, that from which, as from an abundant ſource, all the reſt muſt flow, would be, that ſtrengthening ſo firmly the bond of connection and mutual intereſt between them, as to render them impervious to mortal miſchiefs, and conſtitute them for ever an empire indiſſoluble and free; little

dif-

diſcontent, and root out rebellion and Jacobiniſm. He then propoſed the firſt reſolution; which being read,

Mr Grey roſe and ſaid, that without venturing into the tedious conſideration of the detail of the ſubject then before the houſe, he had no heſitation at once in declaring, that he abhorred even its principle, and ſhould oppoſe it accordingly. The period ſelected for the abominable ſyſtem was as bad as the means. The Iriſh parliament had moſt ſtrangely changed its nature, and by this act they forfeit their exiſtence. It was promiſed, that the parliament of Ireland ſhould have the opportunity of appealing to the ſenſe of the people on the meaſure; and true it was in the firſt inſtance, that five-ſevenths of the counties were againſt it, while no more than nineteen addreſſes could be obtained in favour of it, and theſe too without any public meeting, but collected by means of undue influence under the terror of martial law, and with this paltry number we are told, that the conſent of the Iriſh people is obtained for the meaſure.

Againſt the meaſure twenty-ſeven counties petitioned, beſides corporate towns and bodies to the number of more than 107,000 perſons. Mr Ponſonby, whoſe conſummate ſkill judged rightly the importance of tranſmitting theſe petitions to the parliament of this country, made a motion to that effect, but loſt it by a miniſterial majority. He would aſſure the houſe that a union was held in deteſtation by the almoſt unanimous opinion of the people of Ireland. The landed intereſt was againſt it, and the whole trading part of the community. Of the 300 Iriſh members, 120 were decidedly hoſtile to it; of the 162 that voted for it, he knew that 116 were placemen, or Engliſh generals in command there, who had not a foot of land in the country. He knew alſo, that if any perſon holding a place under government had dared to vote according to his ſentiments on the queſtion, and againſt the union, he was inſtantly diſmiſſed from office; and he alſo knew that by the abuſe of a bill calculated to keep the repreſentation pure and uncorrupt, no leſs than 68 ſeats were vacated in the Iriſh commons laſt ſeſſions, to make room for individuals of a more pliant nature.

He ridiculed the propoſition which denied, that an additional number of 100 members in this parliament would not encreaſe the influence of the crown, together with that of 32 peers; it was a fact, he had long ſince made up his mind on, and now there remained no doubt on the ſubject. With regard to the Scotch union, he thought no compariſon could be drawn between it and the Iriſh, as many circumſtances rendered the former more natural, being leſs remote; but who has not ſeen that ſeveral of the articles of the Scotch union have been violated by the Britiſh parliament; the ſame will happen to the articles of the Iriſh union. He then dwelt on the danger of the ſentiment, that if there were no union there muſt be a ſeparation; which he alſo denied. He entered into a very argumentive harangue to ſhew, that Scotland did not derive any real advantages by the union, which ſhe might not have otherwiſe obtained; and in ſupport of this aſſertion, quoted ſeveral hiſtoric documents, and having glanced at the hiſtory of Ireland, from the period of 1782, during the ſeveral epochs of 1785, 1790, 1795, down to the preſent period, and concluded with remarking, that by local policy, and emancipating the catholics of that country, all the promiſed good of an union would be accompliſhed, without its miſchiefs. He then moved, that the chairman do leave the chair.

Dr Lawrence, at ſome length, inveighed againſt the union, which he conſidered as calculated, not to anſwer the objects held out, but to enhance and increaſe the influence of miniſters; he adverted to ſeveral of the reſolutions, and contended, that the reſult, inſtead of rendering either country happy, would be deſtructive to both.

Mr Sheridan oppoſed the union on every principle of argument, or fact, that could be advanced in favour of it.

Mr Dundas ſaid, that with reſpect to the arguments uſed by an honourable gentleman (Mr Grey) reſpecting the effects of the Scotch union, they were erroneous in every particular. The authority of Sir *John* Clerke was certainly of weight on that ſubject, and the debates in the Lords were only to be conſidered as ſo many ſparks of paſſion, forgotten as ſoon as kindled.

He begged leave to aſk, in the way of return, whether the honourable gentleman had not rather paſſionately treated the ſubject of the union, in the courſe of the preſent evening? He had talked of enſlaving the ſiſter kingdom, and in what way?—Why, taking from it a parliament, which, according to his own allegation, was incompetent to any uſeful purpoſe. He deſired it to be obſerved, that the abolition of hereditary juriſdictions had certainly been a bleſſing to Scotland. But how was this done? By an impartial parliament; and by a parliament as impartial, he had no doubt, but that as many unlooked-for bleſſings would be conferred upon Ireland. He had no notion, however, of following the honourable gentleman in ſeeking for the ſenſe of the people of Ireland, by hunting for petitions through that country. The ſenſe of the people having been expreſſed through their parliament, he had no notion of looking for them through any other vehicle. Not leſs than two-thirds of the property of the country was expreſsly in favour of the motion. The great majority of the Lords of Ireland would not have ſurrendered their privileges, if they did not feel a full conviction of the benefits reſulting from the meaſure. He muſt take his opinion of the buſineſs from ſure and conſtitutional grounds: viz. from the reports of parliament, and not from the narrowed and tinctured channels of private information.

Mr Tierney expreſſed his regret, that the queſtion upon the general iſſue had not been adopted. The arguments of his hon. friend (Mr Grey) had certainly not been anſwered. He had no objection to the preſent meaſure, if the free conſent of Ireland had been obtained; but from all the fair opinions which he could collect, he had no doubt, but that the ſenſe of Ireland was againſt the meaſure. The property of the majority in the Lords had been ſtated; but he was aſſured that the greater number of acres reſted with the minority. The members of the majority, it was to be obſerved, were looking for Engliſh peerages for life, which, by the way, was no ſmall conſideration, nor had it a trifling effect on the members whom they could influence in the lower houſe. In that houſe too, a minority of 120 had been ſlightingly mentioned; but he muſt beg leave to ſtate, that 120 out of 300, was equal to a minority of 223 out of the Britiſh repreſentation of 558. No Britiſh miniſter would venture to call a minority of 223 by the name of an inſignificant minority. It was certainly wrong to vote away the liberties of the ſiſter kingdom, and to carry the meaſure by force. He ſhould, therefore, vote againſt the reſolutions, unleſs the Iriſh parliament were diſſolved, and the ſenſe of the people fairly taken on the ſubject.

Lord Carysfort admitted that the meaſure ought not to be carried without the conſent of the people of Ireland. He had reſided there lately for many months, and he could ſtate that the union with this country was acceded to by almoſt every man of ſenſe and information. It was not in unauthorized and tumultuous aſſemblies, his lordſhip ſaid, that the ſentiments of the people were to be conſulted. If ſuch meetings were to be rated, why not look to thoſe on the contrary ſide, as well as the petitions and remonſtrances in favour of the union. The great balance of property, he had no ſcruple to aſſert, was in favour of the meaſure. An hon. gentleman had taken notice of 17,500 freeholders ſigning a petition againſt it from the county of Down. This, he ſaid, was much more than the number of all the freeholders in that county. Another hon. gentleman had ſaid that the minority in the houſe of lords had the greater number of acres. To this extraordinary aſſertion he muſt reply by averring, that the property of the majority, compared with that of the minority, was in the proportion of ten to one. He had no doubt but that the bulk, and particularly of the thinking part of the nation was in favour of the meaſure.

Mr Grey ſaid, that if this ſtatement were well founded, all difference was at an end, and there remained nothing to be done, in order to aſcertain the fact, but to diſſolve the Iriſh parliament.

Mr Pitt ſaid, that he could not conſent to any propoſition of this nature. Laſt year, when the Commons of Ireland appeared for a time to oppoſe the meaſure, there was no mention on the oppoſite ſide to appeal to the people. The bringing on of the queſtion was then

then held to be dangerous, even by the gentlemen who now oppoſed him. He could not, now that the predicted danger had been paſſed over, think of prolonging the difficulty and the ſuſpence. He did not conſider an appeal to the people as fraught with that efficacy which ſome gentleman had thrown out. It was certainly difficult to obtain the correct ſenſe of popular meetings, and even thoſe who boaſted of the iſſue at the common hall, were ſometimes taught, by ſubſequent events, that the deliberate, votes in a different ratio with the tranſitory applauſe. In the courſe of the preſent war new dangers had ariſen; theſe were met by new remedies; yet the clamour originally raiſed had ended in the complete and ſatisfied acquieſcence of the people.

Lord Sheffield corroborated all the facts ſtated by Lord Carysfort, with reſpect to the unfair means adopted by the oppoſers of the meaſure on the other ſide of the water to prejudice the people againſt it. With reſpect to the expedient alledged to have been adopted by miniſters, of procuring parliamentary votes in favour of the queſtion, by the new elections which had recently taken place in Ireland, it was a well known fact, that, ſo far from from thoſe elections having produced any ſuch effect, many of the new members were decidedly averſe to the meaſure.

The houſe then divided on the motion of Mr Grey, when there appeared, ayes 30, noes 336; majority 206.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

April 2. Lord Auckland, purſuant to his notice on a former day, roſe, and after expatiating upon the enormous encreaſe of the vice of adultery, and the perverſion, as well as abuſe of many divorce bills, which had paſſed the legiſlature of this country, his lordſhip ſtated, that for a period of 150 years previous to the year 1700, no more than four divorce bills had paſſed that houſe. During the period of republicaniſm in this country, a law was enacted, puniſhing the guilty with death, and that law prevailed for the ſpace of ten years, until the reſtoration of royalty. In Scotland, his Lordſhip obſerved, that law, though not acted upon, was nevertheleſs in full force.—His Lordſhip's object was to bring in a bill that would remedy the evils and pernicious effects ariſing from too looſe a regard for all moral and civilized obligations, and to an accompliſhment of divorce bills

For which purpoſe, he ſhould move for leave to bring in a bill to prevent any perſon divorced for adultery from intermarrying with the guilty perſon.

His Lordſhip ſtated, that the bill would accompliſh two objects, viz. one rendering illegal any ſuch marriages, and the other under certain penalties prohibiting it. He ſhould move that it be printed, read a ſecond time on Friday, and a day after the receſs proceed on it; thereby giving their Lordſhips full opportunity to diſcuſs it, and enable them to diſcuſs it with more ſatisfaction to themſelves. He however, previouſly obſerved, that it was by no means his intention to hurry the meaſure; neither did he intend that it ſhould have an *ex poſt facto* juriſdiction. For theſe reaſons, it was his reſolution to introduce therein a clauſe which ſhould date the commencement of its operations from the laſt day of the preſent ſeſſions of parliament.

April 4. Lord Auckland moved the order of the day for the ſecond reading of the bill to prevent perſons divorced for adultery from intermarrying with the perſon guilty of the adultery.

The Duke of Clarence roſe, and ſaid the bill before their Lordſhips was of the moſt miſchievous tendency, as it went directly not to prevent vice, but to excite it. Women who might be unfortunate enough to become enthralled in the ſorrows of adultery, as the law at preſent ſtands, have not only an opportunity of amending their lives by a due regard to ſocial order, but alſo an opportunity, by decorum and chaſtity, in a ſecond marriage, to make atonement to God and man for the violation of the firſt; but by the meaſure then ſubmitted, inſtead of allowing them theſe ſalutary opportunities, plunged them, without alternative, into an abyſs of proſtitution, and rendered them for ever incapable of every moral obligation.

The Biſhop of London differed with his Royal Highneſs as to the effect the bill would have, and argued that it was much more likely to have a contrary effect.

Lord Guildford expreſſed his decided diſap-

diſapprobation of the bill, which he conſidered more calculated to provoke ſin than prevent it; and, in his opinion, it went the length of violating the beſt attribute of the Chriſtian faith and of the Chriſtian doctrine—Repentance.

The Biſhop of Durham declared the bill to be urgently neceſſary, from the frequent repetition of the crime it went to prevent. In the century ending 1700, only four divorces had ſtained the records of that houſe; but during the period of the preſent reign, no leſs than ninety-eight had diſgraced it.

Lord Mulgrave oppoſed it very warmly, on the principles of cruelty and injuſtice.

Lord Auckland, at conſiderable length, entered into a very extenſive juſtification of the principle of its clauſes.

Lord Kinnoul ſaid, if a meaſure could be devited to excite the worſt of all evils, proſtitution, this he deemed was that meaſure.

Lord Guilford expreſſed himſelf to the ſame purpoſe, and added, that in the principle the bill itſelf ſeemed to avow nothing like the prevention of the crime of adultery, it threatened, that was all. He was of opinion, that in the moment of conflicting paſſions, little regard was had to preſent or future penalties, and the offenders ſeldom calculate, when committing this kind of crime, upon its conſequences.

The Biſhop of Rochſter, in a very zealous ſtrain, ſupported the bill, and contended that nothing leſs than the puniſhments to be inflicted by this bill could deter the commiſſion of the foulеſt offence againſt ſociety.

The Duke of Clarence, in reply to the biſhop, and in explanation, made ſome pointed, though humorous, applications to himſelf, which excited no ſmall degree of merriment among ſome of their Lordſhips, particularly when in praiſe of the glorious revolution, he ſtated, that were it not for it; he might now have been amuſing himſelf as the ſubject of ſome little principality in Germany! and concluded with moving, that the ſecond reading be poſtponed to this day four months.

This brought on a converſation between Lords Eldon, Carnarvon, Grenville, and Loughbourough, for it; and Lords Mulgrave and Guildford againſt it. But on a diviſion there appeared—

For the ſecond reading, 30—Againſt it, 11.

It was then read a ſecond time, and ordered to be committed.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

GAZETTE INTELLIGENCE.

Downing-Street, May 19.

Diſpatches, of which the following are copies, have been this day received from WILLIAM WICKHAM, Eſq; his Majeſty's Miniſter Plenipotentiary and Commiſſary at the Imperial Royal and Allied Armies, by the Right Hon. Lord GRENVILLE.

Reidlingen, on the Danube, Tueſday, May 6.

MY LORD,

The army marched from Donaueſchingen the 2d inſtant, and arrived at Engen in the courſe of the afternoon, before the enemy had reached that place. Notwithſtanding the great importance which was attached to the gaining the poſition of Stokach, yet it was not thought poſſible to proceed ſo far that day without expoſing to eminent danger the ſeveral corps of the Archduke Ferdinand (which covered the march on the ſide of Zolhaus), and thoſe of Generals Ginlay and Kienmayer which had received orders to retire from Fribourg and Offenburgh, and join the main army.

On the ſame day the enemy withdrew the army which had till then occupied the north-eaſt part of Switzerland, and was oppoſed to the Auſtrians on the ſide of the Griſons and the Voralberg, and brought the whole of it towards Conſtance and Schaffhauſen in the courſe of the following night, leaving the eaſtern frontier of Switzerland entirely open.

On the 3d in the morning, this force, united to that which had paſſed the Rhine at Schaffhauſen on the 1ſt inſt. attacked and carried the Auſtrian poſition at Stockach, occupied by Prince

Joſeph

Joſeph of Lorraine, with a force under his command quite inadequate to meet that which the enemy had brought againſt him. On this occaſion the Auſtrians ſuſtained a very conſiderable loſs both in men, cannon, and ſtores; though fortunately a part of the magazines which had been formed at Stockach had been carried away in the courſe of the two preceding days.

The Prince having been obliged to fall back on Pfullendorf and Moikirch, the left flank of General Kray's army was uncovered.

In this ſituation of things, and before the Archduke Ferdinand had effected his junction, General Kray was attacked at Engen, about two o'clock in the afternoon, by the main French army, commanded by General Moreau in perſon. This army had been reinforced by a detachment from the camp at Dijon, and conſiſted of five entire diviſions. A ſeparate force fell at the ſame time upon the Archduke, and obliged him to fall back on Dutlingen.

The French attacked every where with the utmoſt impetuoſity, bringing up freſh columns in ſucceſſion, and ſacrificing immenſe numbers of men on every part of the Auſtrian line where they had hoped to penetrate. They were, however, unable to make any one point, and at nine in the evening they gave up the attempt; at which time the Auſtrians remained maſters of the whole poſition which they had occupied in the morning, and the Archduke had joined the main army, after having defeated the corps oppoſed to him, and taken ſeveral priſoners and three pieces of cannon.

His Royal Highneſs, to whoſe perſonal exertions this ſucceſs was chiefly owing, has on this occaſion merited and gained the eſteem and admiration of the whole army.

At this moment the ſpirit and confidence of the army was ſuch, that General Kray would have attacked the enemy, but for the loſs of Stockach, which rendered his retreat abſolutely neceſſary. He remained, however, in the field of battle all night, and only began his march at day-break.

The army arrived at Leiptingen at nine in the morning of the 4th, where it halted till three in the afternoon, and then marched forward to Moikirch, where a junction was effected with Prince Joſeph of Lorraine at nine in the evening.

The Archduke covered the march, in the courſe of which his Royal Highneſs was joined by General Ginlay with the corps from Fribourg, and by the firſt diviſion of the Bavarian ſubſidiary army from Bylingin.

The whole of this march was made, and the junction with General Ginlay, Prince Joſeph of Lorraine, and the Bavarians, effected without any material interruption from the enemy.

In the afternoon of yeſterday the different corps of the enemy being concentrated in one great army, whilſt General Kray had ſtill between thirty and forty thouſand men detached on different points, General Moreau attacked the Auſtrian poſition of Moikirch with his whole force, but owing to the ſteady bravery of the Auſtrian troops, and particularly to the decided ſuperiority of their artillery, he was unable to make any material impreſſion, and at ſun-ſet each army retired to its reſpective quarters. The loſs was very conſiderable on both ſides; but there is every reaſon to believe that the enemy has ſuffered much more conſiderably than the Auſtrians.

This opinion, which is confirmed by the unanimous report of the priſoners made at the cloſe of the day, is founded not only on the circumſtance of his not renewing the attack in the night, or this morning, notwithſtanding his very great ſuperiority of numbers, but on the nature of the action itſelf, which conſiſted in a ſucceſſion of impetuous but unſucceſsful attacks made by the French infantry, under the fire of the Auſtrian artillery, expoſed to frequent charges of cavalry.

Unleſs General Kray ſhould be again attacked in the courſe of to-day, he will probably take a poſition this afternoon or to-morrow behind the Danube, his left at this place and his right at Sigmaringen.

Your Lordſhip will probably have been much alarmed at the firſt reports of this affair that will have reached England through France, nor indeed can it be ſuppoſed that the expectation of the enemy ſhould not have been extreme during the whole day of the 3d, or that the French officers ſhould not have holden out to their Government the moſt flattering hopes of

of ultimate and complete ſucceſs; but the ſteady valour of the Auſtrian troops, the order that reigns through every department of the army, and the ſtill and unſhaken courage and coolneſs of the Generals has, I truſt, under the bleſſing of God, fruſtrated the great deſigns of the enemy.—I have the honour to be, &c. W. WICKHAM.

Ulm, May 8. 1800.

MY LORD,

On the 6th inſtant the Auſtrians took a poſition behind the Danube without any material oppoſition from the enemy, whoſe loſs in the battle of the 5th appears to have been greater than was at firſt ſuppoſed. On the ſame day the junction was effected with Lieutenant General Kienmayer.

The ſecond diviſion of the Bavarians paſſed through this place yeſterday, and marched about a league further, where they will halt to-day, and their junction with General Kray will be effected either to-morrow or the day after, according to the neceſſity that may exiſt for haſtening their march.

The firſt diviſion, conſiſting of ſix thouſand men, had joined the main army in time to render very eſſential ſervices, and was cloſely engaged with the enemy in the battle of the 5th.

The Swiſs regiment of Rovorea in his Majeſty's ſervice, under the command of Colonel de Watteville, has formed a part of the Archduke's corps from the beginning, and has been particularly diſtinguiſhed by its bravery and good conduct; I am ſorry to add, that it has ſuffered in proportion, and that a number of excellent officers have been either killed or ſeverely wounded.

It is impoſſible at preſent to obtain any exact return of the Auſtrians loſs in killed and wounded.

Though the General Officers expoſed themſelves on every occaſion, yet I believe not one of them has been killed or made priſoner, and one only (Major General Kienmayer), wounded.

Few priſoners have been made on either ſide; but the Auſtrians were obliged to leave their wounded at Engen, for want of carriages to carry them away.

No one corps of Auſtrians has been broken or diſabled by the enemy, nor have they loſt a ſingle piece of cannon in the different actions between the main armies, though ſeveral fell into the hands of the enemy at Stockach.

The Archduke Ferdinand, as I have mentioned in another diſpatch, took three pieces from the enemy at the time when his Royal Highneſs formed his junction with the Commander in Chief near Engen. I have the honour to be, &c. W. WICKHAM.

Downing Street, May 27.

Diſpatches have been this day received from WM WICKHAM, Eſq; and Lieut.-Col. CLINTON, by the Right Hon. Lord GRENVILLE.

Head-quarters, Memingen, May 10.

MY LORD,

I have the honour to inform your Lordſhip, that the army marched in the courſe of the night of the 6th to Langen Enſlingen; the enemy ſent only a detachment to obſerve the movement of the Auſtrians on the left of the Danube, and marched the main body of his army in a direction which gave General Kray an apprehenſion for his communication with Lieutenant General Prince Reuſs in the Voralberg; to preſerve which he haſtened by a forced march, recroſſing the Danube at Riedlingen, to Biberach, which place he reached in the afternoon of the 8th. The army took a poſition behind the Riſs. The enemy, however, ſtill had the advance, and already occupied Waldſee. On the 9th the Auſtrian advanced poſts were vigorouſly attacked and driven in. General Kray, wiſhing to avoid engaging in a general affair, fell back at night to Ochſenhauſen. Every report of the enemy ſtated that he was ſtill marching by his right. This morning the army croſſed the Iller in two columns at Illerdiſſen; and here this place the troops had ſcarcely reached their ground when the enemy began a freſh attack on the left; at the ſame time a report was received, that a ſtrong column was on its march to Kempton. Every thing announced on the part of the enemy the intention of an attack. General Kray therefore had determined to proceed to Ulm, where he will be joined by the corps of General Starray, conſiſting of ten battalions and a large proportion of

cavalry,

cavalry, beſides the ſecond diviſion of the Bavarians. The affair of this day, in which the Bavarians diſtinguiſhed themſelves much to the ſatisfaction of General Kray, terminated in one of advanced poſts. I have the honour to be, &c.

H. CLINTON.

Donawerth, May 13.

MY LORD,

I have much ſatisfaction in tranſmitting to your Lordſhip the enclosed extract from the general orders iſſued by the Commander in Chief of the Imperial army on the 11th inſt. bearing the moſt honourable teſtimony to the conduct of the firſt diviſion of the Bavarian troops in the ſervice of his Majeſty, commanded by Colonel Baron de Wreede, acting as Brigadier General.

Too much cannot be ſaid in praiſe of the exertions that have been made on this occaſion by their ſerene Highneſſes the Elector of Bavaria and the Duke of Wurtemburg, to put the ſubſidiary troops in a ſituation to take the field, to haſten their march towards the Auſtrian army, and in every reſpect to fulfil and make good the engagements they had ſeverally contracted with his Majeſty. I am, &c.

W. WICKHAM.

Extract from the General Orders of the Imperial Army in Germany.

The Bavarian troops diſtinguiſhed themſelves ſo much by their bravery and their ſteadineſs in the action of yeſterday, that I feel myſelf bound to give this public aſſurance to their Commander, Colonel Baron de Wreede, as well as to the officers and the whole corps, not only that I am entirely ſatisfied with their conduct, but that I owe them my very beſt thanks, which I beg them to accept.

Donauwerth, May 13.

MY LORD,

I have the ſatisfaction to inform your Lordſhip, that General Kray having been attacked on the 11th inſtant on his march from Memingen to Ulm, had repulſed the enemy and driven him beyond Memingen, where, in conſequence of this ſucceſs, he left a conſiderable corps under General Merfelde, who is charged to keep open the communication with Prince Reuſs in the Voralberg.

The main army retired to Ulm, where it has effected its junction with the ſecond diviſion of the Bavarian ſubſidiary army, and with General Starray. I have the honour to be, &c.

W. WICKHAM.

Admiralty-Office, May 10.

Letters received this morning from Lord Keith dated the 21ſt of April, mention ſeveral important advantages gained by the Auſtrians in the vicinity of Genoa, under the walls of which place the French have been obliged to concentrate their force. In many attacks the fire of the Engliſh ſhips was employed with conſiderable effect.

The meſſenger reports that he ſaw an Engliſh ſhip towing a captured Dutch ſhip of the line (with a frigate or ſloop) into Yarmouth roads.

Downing-Street, May 10.

A diſpatch has been received from W. Wyndham to Lord Grenville.

Florence, April 24.

The lateſt news arrived this morning from the vicinity of Genoa ſtates, that Maſſena having been beat a ſecond time at Voltri, on the 18th inſt. was obliged to take refuge, with the remains of his army, within the walls of Genoa; and that all the ſtrong poſts and forts without the city were in the hands of the combined powers, under the command of General Melas, and Admiral Lord Keith.

(*End of the Gazettes.*)

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

RUSSIA.

The receſſion of this power from the allied powers, whatever may have been the cauſe, ſeems now fully aſcertained. It is in conſequence of this total receſſion on the part of Ruſſia that the intended expedition is ſaid to be relinquiſhed. Suwarrow is now ſtated to be alive, and to have arrived at Peterſburgh, where he is again about to be received by the capricious ſmile of Court favour.

GERMANY.

The campaign has opened on the Rhine. On the 25th of April the two corps of the army, commanded by Generals St Suſanne and St Cyr, paſſed the Rhine. The former, proceeding from Kehl, and directing his courſe to

Offenbourg, came up with the enemy, who, to the number of 15,000, made a great reſiſtance. The battle laſted from five in the morning till four in the afternoon.

The Auſtrians retired at all points to take the line of Stockach, while the French army paſſed the Wiſtach the morning of the 1ſt of May, and marched toward Neukirch, to be joined by Lieutenant General Lecourbe, who paſſed the Rhine on the ſame day between Stein and Shaffhauſen. The paſſage was executed with prodigious rapidity. The reſult of the battles at the three points where the Rhine was paſſed, was from 7 to 800 priſoners, a major, 8 officers, 3 pieces of cannon, together with the occupation of the caſtle of Hohenwell, ſurrendered by capitulation. This fort is almoſt impregnable and is defended by 80 pieces of braſs cannon.

ITALY.

The ſituation of the contending powers in this quarter, will be ſeen from the London Gazettes, p. 357. Several reports ſtate, that Maſſena finding all hopes of eſcape fruitleſs, and that proviſions were likely to fail completely, had offered terms of capitulation.

EGYPT.

Notwithſtanding the capitulation, it is ſtated, that General Kleber has commenced hoſtilities in this quarter, and obtained a victory over the Ottoman troops.

AMERICA.

Captain Barry reached Philadelphia with diſpatches from Meſſrs Liſtworth and Davie, Envoys to the French Republic, dated the 20th of February at Burgos in Spain. They received their paſſports the preceding day from Talleyrand, the Miniſter for foreign affairs, incloſed in a letter, expreſſing impatience for their arrival at Paris.

Several attempts have lately been made to ſet the city of Charleſtown on fire. Five hundred dollars are offered for convicting the offender.

EAST INDIES.

A large body of the licentious troops of the Bermahs have lately made inroads into the Chittagong province, and, under pretence of apprehending ſome emigrants who were ſaid to have fled from Arracan, have committed the moſt alarming outrages in the villages, where they have not only plundered the defenceleſs inhabitants of their cattle and effects, but ſet fire to ſeveral cottages; in conſequence of which, Lieut. Hall had been deputed to go to the frontiers of Ava, in order to make ſome arrangements with the Bermahs. He has full powers to treat for delivering up the fugitives, if the explanation ſhall prove ſatisfactory.

According to a repreſentation lately made to the Supreme Government, it appears that there are no leſs than ſix millions of people of different deſcriptions employed in the manufacture of cotton in India, who require nothing more for their ſervices than food and protection.

Accounts from the Malabar Coaſt, ſtate that four or five ſail of veſſels, mounting from ten to twenty-four guns, and ſuppoſed to be the enemy's privateers, had made their appearance off Allepé.

A ſmall fort in the Bilghy Ghaut, garriſoned by ſome peons of the late Sultaun, has juſt ſurrendered to a detachment of European troops, which has taken poſſeſſion of it.

IRELAND.

The articles concerning the Union, which engroſſed ſo much of the attention of Parliament, are now finiſhed, and have been acceded to, without any material alteration, by both houſes, and have received the royal aſſent.

LONDON.

On the morning of the 15th May, a very extraordinary and alarming circumſtance occurred in Hyde-Park, while the Grenadier Brigade of Guards were going through the evolutions of a field day in the preſence of his Majeſty. In going through the firings, a ball was diſcharged from near the centre, which ſtruck a gentleman, a Mr Ongley, of Chelſea, ſtanding five or ſix yards from the king.

The following *Bulletin* on this ſubject was iſſued from the Horſe Guards, in the courſe of the afternoon:

"*Horſe Guards, May* 15, 1800.

"This morning, during the field-day of the Grenadier Battalion of the Foot Guards, in Hyde Park, a ſhot was accidentally diſcharged from the ranks,

ranks, which unfortunately wounded a Gentleman of the name of Ongley, who was amongſt the ſpectators. The ſhot perforated Mr Ongley's thigh, but did not injure the bone arteries. His Majeſty directed the Military Surgeon preſent to examine and dreſs Mr Ongley's wounds, and was much gratified by the favourable report made by Mr Nixon, the Surgeon of the Grenadiers. His Majeſty, on coming from the field, ſent his commands to Mr Keate, the Surgeon General, and Mr Ruſh, the Inſpector of Hoſpitals, to wait on Mr Ongley, and to offer their aſſiſtance during the progreſs of his cure."

On the ſame night, at the theatre of Drury-lane, a piſtol was fired from the pit, immediately as His Majeſty entered his box; fortunately no perſon was injured by it, nor did his Majeſty appear in the leaſt alarmed, though ſome gentlemen in the pit poſitively ſtated that it was pointed at him. Immediately the perſon who fired it was ſeized and dragged over the rails of the orcheſtra through the muſic room to a place of ſecurity. The firing of the piſtol was ſo inſtantaneous as to prevent all the perſons near the aſſaſſin from ſeeing his deſign in time to defeat it, though we learn, that providentially a gentleman that ſat next to him, (Mr Holroyd, of Scotlandyard) had the good fortune to raiſe the arm of the aſſaſſin, ſo as to direct the contents of the piſtol rather towards the roof of the box.

The aſſaſſin appears to be James Hadfield; he ſays he ſerved his time to a working ſilver-ſmith; but had enliſted into the 15th light dragoons; and, while the Duke of York commanded at Lincelles, he fought againſt the enemies of his king and country, where he was wounded, and therefore diſcharged. He ſaid that he worked at his trade for Mr Solomon Hougham. Being weary of life, he laſt week bought a pair of piſtols from one Wm Wakelin, a hair-dreſſer and broker in St John-ſtreet. (Mr Sheridan and Mr Wigſtead, who examined him immediately, ſent perſons to bring Wakelin and his maſter to the theatre.) Wakelin, the perſon from whom he had bought the piſtols, being brought to the houſe, was examined. He ſaid it was true that he had bought a pair of piſtols of him, and that he had ſaid they were for his young maſter, who would give him a blunderbuſs. He knew very little of Hadfield, but knew where he worked, and had heard a good character of him, but that the leaſt drink affected his head.

Upon this evidence he was committed to Cold Bath Fields, for re-examination; after which he was brought up before the Privy Council, and finally committed to Newgate on a charge of treaſon.

During the performance of "God Save the King," every paſſage that referred to the ſafety of his Majeſty was received with a thunder of applauſe, and ſhouting of *Huzza!* At the end of the farce, which was *The Humourift*, "God Save the King" was again demanded, and Kelly ſung the following additional verſe, ſaid to be written *impromptu* by Mr Sheridan:

"From ev'ry latent foe,
"From the aſſaſſin's blow;
"God ſave the King!
"O'er him thine arm extend,
"For Britain's ſake defend,
"Our Father, Prince, and Friend.
"God ſave the King."

This ſtanza gave the audience peculiar pleaſure, and was *encored* by the eager deſire of the whole houſe.

Addreſſes of congratulation have been ſent to his Majeſty from both Houſes of Parliament, and from the City of London, which have ſince been followed by all the corporate towns in the kingdom.

EDINBURGH.

May 1. On Saturday laſt, about eleven o'clock forenoon, an alarming fire happened in Netherholm-ſtreet, Kilmarnock, by which, notwithſtanding the exertions of many thouſands of people, *forty* thatched houſes were totally conſumed, containing nearly *one hundred and twenty families*.

3. A tendency to riot being manifeſted on account of the ſcarcity and high price of oat meal; ſome miſchief happened on Tueſday morning, by the mob ſeizing ſome loads going to market, and diſtributing the ſame, in ſome inſtances at a reduced price, in others *gratis*. The houſes of ſeveral dealers being broke into, and pillaged both in Edinburgh and in Leith. By the interference of the civil and military powers, all was quieted before Wed-

neſday morning, during the whole week, however, ſtrong picket guards kept watch in different parts of the city; and every exertion was uſed to ſupply the market with wheat and oats. The following proclamation was iſſued by the Magiſtrates and Sheriff.

Proclamation.

The Lord Provoſt, Magiſtrates, and Sheriff of the County, taking into their ſerious conſideration, the Tumults which have diſturbed the Peace of the City, and adjacent Towns and Villages, and being deſirous to remove the fears and apprehenſions which have exiſted in the minds of many well-meaning people, with regard to the preſent High Price and Scarcity of Grain; take this public opportunity of informing them, That every exertion has been, and will continue to be made, to have them ſupplied, as far as circumſtances will allow, with wholeſome and nutritive Food; that is, Wheat Meal and Barley Meal, at the current price of the market: At the ſame time, from the inquiries and information they have received, they have good reaſon to believe that the price will be ſoon conſiderably reduced: And therefore, after this public aſſurance, it is expected they will carefully avoid any Tumultuous Aſſembly for the future, as the Magiſtrates will take the moſt *vigorous meaſures* for repreſſing any Tumultuous or Riotous meetings of the Populace which may hereafter occur, being ſatisfied that they proceed from the wicked views of bad and deſigning people.

Given at Edinburgh, the 29th day of April 1800.

GOD SAVE THE KING.

JAMES STIRLING, Provoſt.
JAMES CLERK, Sheriff-Depute.

On the 1ſt of May, the New Exchange Coffee Room was opened at Dundee.

5. The elegant villa of Bellevue, the property of the late Mrs General Scott, in the neighbourhood of this city, has been purchaſed by the Town Council; the terms, we underſtand, are a feuduty of 1050l. per annum, with the privilege of buying it up, within ſeven years, for 20,000l. The pleaſure ground is to be laid out for building conformable to a plan.

Scots Peerage of Fairfax.

May 6. After hearing counſel, in the Houſe of Peers, and a variety of evidence adduced, a reſolution paſſed the Committee, ſtating that the claimant had made good his title.

The city and county of Edinburgh, and various ſocieties and incorporations, have addreſſed his Majeſty on his late providential eſcape from aſſaſſination at the Theatre.

The Magiſtrates and Town Council of Inverneſs, in teſtimony of their reſpect for the characters of the Right Hon. William Pitt, and the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, have cauſed buſts of theſe eminent ſtateſmen and patriots to be placed in their Guildhall.

Liſt of Accidents during the month.

10. At Perth, ſome ſcaffolding fell down, whereby a boy was killed, and ſeveral perſons hurt.

12. A boy drowned in the Tay near Dunkeld.

21. A wright ſhop in Stockwell ſtreet, Glaſgow, burnt down.

30. Two warehouſes and a counting houſe, in Leith, broke into, and conſiderable damage done.---Two men killed at Fullerton coal work.

General Aſſembly.

On the 22d the General Aſſembly of the Church of Scotland met ---The Right Hon. the Earl of Leven, his Majeſty's Commiſſioner, attended by ſeveral noblemen and gentlemen, walked in proceſſion to the High Church, where his Grace was received by the Lord Provoſt and Magiſtrates in their robes. The Rev. Dr Moodie, the laſt Moderator, preached an excellent diſcourſe from Pſalm xxxiii. verſe 12.

After Divine ſervice, his Grace the Commiſſioner went to the Aſſembly Room, and the Members of Aſſembly proceeded to chuſe a Moderator. The Rev. Dr Baird, principal of the Univerſity of Edinburgh, was unanimouſly elected.

Friday the Aſſembly voted a congratulatory addreſs to his Majeſty, on his late providential eſcape from the daring attempt of an aſſaſſin.

Saturday the Aſſembly approved of the election of the Rev. Sir Harry Moncrieff Wellwood, Bart. to be ſole Collector of the Widows Fund.

On

On Monday, the overture reſpecting the low ſalaries of pariſh ſchoolmaſters was read, and ordered to lie on the table.—They then took under conſideration a petition from Provoſt Alexander Brander and others, Managers of the Chapel of Eaſe, Elgin. Parties being called and heard, and after reaſoning, a motion was made and carried, to *affirm* the judgment of the Preſbytery of Elgin finding, that the Chapel of Eaſe in the town of Elgin is at preſent unneceſſary.

Tueſday the Aſſembly unanimouſly agreed, that an humble and loyal addreſs ſhould be preſented to his Majeſty, on the preſent ſituation of public affairs.

The Aſſembly afterwards proceeded to conſider a petition for Mr Andrew Bell, miniſter of Crail, and Mr James Nairn, miniſter of Pittenweem, appellants from a ſentence of the Synod of Fife, of 8th April laſt, diſmiſſing complaints againſt different judgments of the Preſbytery of St Andrew's, and appointing the Preſbytery to proceed to the ſettlement of Dr Robert Arnot in the pariſh of Kingſbarns; and a petition for Mr Thomas Fleming, miniſter of Kirkcaldy, diſſenter and complainer againſt the ſaid ſentence. After a long and well ſupported debate, which continued to about ten o'clock, P. M. a vote was put, the ſtate of which was, affirm or reverſe the ſentence of the Synod of Fife and preſbytery of St Andrew's. It carried *affirm*, 100 to 61. The Committee therefore ordained the Preſbytery of St Andrew's to proceed in the ſettlement of Dr Arnot with all convenient ſpeed, according to the rules of the Church.

(*The remainder of the Proceedings will be given in our next.*)

Circuit Intelligence.

Weſt.

Inverary, April 16.

The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened by the Right Hon. Lord Methven, but there was no buſineſs to come before the Court.

Glaſgow, April 25.

John Smith, accuſed of breaking into various bleachfields in Kilbarchan and Lochwinnoch, and taking therefrom a quantity of muſlin and thread, was found guilty on his own confeſſion, and ſentenced to fourteen years tranſportation.

The diet was deſerted *pro loco et tempore* againſt *William Millar*, *John Cochran*, *John Cellars*, alias *Sellars*, and *James Mitchell*, for an aſſault.

John Fletcher and *George Bell*, for mobing and rioting, were found guilty; but owing to an objection being ſtated to the verdict, they were recommitted to jail. *Archibald Black*, alſo accuſed of rioting, was ſentenced (on account of his youth) to fourteen days confinement in the houſe of correction.

Archibald Campbell and *George Rankine*, accuſed of different acts of theft, committed in Anderſton and Grahameſton, were found guilty on their own confeſſion. Rankine to be tranſported for ten years, and Campbell for life.

Stirling, April 28.

The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened here upon the 26th current and proceeded to the trial of *Robert Lowrie*, weaver in Cambuſbarron, accuſed of ſtealing ſundry articles, particularly a Banker's receipt for 7l. of depoſited money, of forging the name of the perſon to whom it was payable to an indorſation on the back of thereof, by which means he obtained payment. The charge of forgery was paſſed from, and the trial proceeded as to the charge of theft; but after the evidence was led, the Advocate Depute did not ſee grounds for demanding a verdict againſt the pannel. The libel was found not proven, and the pannel acquitted.

North.

Aberdeen, April 25.

The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened by the Right Hon. Lord Dunsinnan.

Ann Mitchell, alias *Weſt*, late ſervant to James Downie, white fiſher in the ſea town of Pittully, accuſed of houſebreaking, theft, and wilful fire raiſing, was fugitate for not appearing.

Adam Chiſholm and *Ann Chiſholm*, late priſoners in the tolbooth of Stonehaven, indicted for ſtealing goods from a chapman's booth at Laurencekirk fair, having petitioned for baniſhment, the Advocate Depute conſented, and they were accordingly baniſhed forth of Scotland during all the days of their reſpective lives, unleſs the ſaid Adam Chiſholm ſhould return thereto in his Majeſty's ſervice, who had inliſted as a ſoldier.

Iſabel

Iſobel Munro, lately reſiding in Huntly, indicted for ſtealing various articles of wearing apparel and furniture from Huntly Lodge, at leaſt reſetting the ſame, knowing them to be ſtolen, having alſo petitioned for baniſhment, the Advocate Depute conſented thereto.

The Court then proceeded to the trial of *Alexander Milne*, farmer at the Mill of Crichie, in the pariſh of Fyvie, accuſed of ſtealing 8l. 10s. in Bank-notes, from the ſhop of Meſſrs M'Killigen and Robertſon, merchants in Banff. The Jury returned a verdict finding him guilty; but, on account of his former character, and as this was his firſt offence, recommended him to the mercy of the Court. Whereupon he was ſentenced to be impriſoned in the tolbooth of Aberdeen for two months, and thereafter to be baniſhed from the counties of Aberdeen, Banff, and Kincardine, for the ſpace of three years, under the uſual certifications.

Elizabeth Greig and *Helen Anderſon*, accuſed of ſtealing goods from ſhops in the town of Aberdeen, having applied for baniſhment, his Majeſty's Advocate Depute conſented to the prayer of their petition, and they were accordingly baniſhed Scotland during all the days of their lives.

Inverneſs, May 2.

The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened here this day by the Right Hon Lord CULLEN.

Roderick M'Leod, tenant in Elphin in Sutherland, was tried for murder, or culpable homicide, and unanimouſly found *Not Guilty*.

Margaret M'Farliſh, accuſed of child murder, having petitioned for baniſhment; ſhe was accordingly baniſhed forth of Scotland during her life.

The Court then proceeded to the trial of *John Rannie*, ventriloquiſt, reſiding in Elgin, *Alexander Simpſon*, ſhoemaker there, and *Emelia M'Donald*, reſiding there, accuſed of meal mobbing: After a pretty long trial, the Jury returned a verdict, finding John Rannie guilty of the 1ſt, 2d, 3d, and 5th charges libelled. The libel againſt Alex. Simpſon was *not proven*; and Emelia M'Donald *guilty*, in conſequence of her own confeſſion. Simpſon was inſtantly diſmiſſed.

The Court gave judgement, ordaining Rannie to lie in priſon one month, and baniſhed Scotland for ſeven years, and Emelia M'Donald to be impriſoned for fourteen days.

Perth, May 9.

The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened here this day by the Right Hon. Lord DUNSINNAN and Lord CULLEN.

The Court proceeded to the trial of *Angus M'Intoſh*, tenant in Drumachine, in the pariſh of Logierait, and county of Perth, accuſed of ſheep ſtealing.

May 10. The Jury returned their verdict, all in one voice finding the libel *Not Proven*.

James Hall and *James Walker*, late ſoldiers in the 72d regiment of foot, indicted for ſtealing goods from carriers carts on the ſtreets of Perth, were tried and found *Guilty*. The Court delayed pronouncing ſentence till Monday.

The Court then proceeded to the trial of *Robert Menzies*, carrier in Kirkton of Weem, in the pariſh of Weem, and county of Perth, *Catharine M'Allum*, his wife, and *William Menzies*, his ſon, accuſed of theft and receipt of theft. An objection was ſtated in bar of proceeding againſt William Menzies, in reſpect he was only between eight and nine years of age. After hearing counſel fully, the Court repelled the objection and allowed the trial to proceed.

May 12. The Court met, and having called for the verdict of the Jury in the trial of Robert Menzies, &c. the Advocate Depute objected to its being received, becauſe it had come to his knowledge that one of the Jurymen, in place of incloſing, had gone down into the ſtreet, and from thence to his own lodgings, where he remained till brought back by the macer, and then incloſed: He therefore contended that the pannels had not tholed an aſſize, and craved the Court to diſcharge the Jury without receiving their verdict, and that the pannels ought to be ſubjected to a new trial. The Court repelled the objection, and allowed the verdict to be received. The Jury then gave in their verdict, all in one voice finding the pannel, William Menzies, *Guilty*; but on account of his youth, recommending him to mercy. All in one voice finding Robert Menzies *Not Guilty*. And by plurality of voices, finding Catharine M'Callum *Guilty*.

Robert Menzies was inſtantly diſmiſſed from the bar.

The counſel for the other two pannels objected, that no judgement could paſs

paſs upon the verdict againſt them for the reaſons ſtated by the Advocate Depute againſt receiving it, which, though not a good objection in that ſtage of the proceeding, was fatal to the verdict by the act of Parliament 11th James VI. c. 91. The Court ſuſtained the objection in arreſt of judgement, and found that no ſentence could follow. The pannels were thereupon diſmiſſed from the bar.

The Court then pronounced judgement upon the verdict returned againſt James Hall and James Walker, ordering and adjudging them to be whipt through the ſtreets of Perth on the 30th day of May curt. and tranſported beyond ſeas for five years.

Ann Lamb, accuſed of child murder, was tried, and found *Not Guilty*.

South.

Dumfries, April 11.

The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened by the Right Hon. Lord ARMADALE.

William Douglas, William Paton, Alexander Nicholſon, John Blacklock, Alexander Copland, Suſan M'Naught, Jean Haining, and *William Lindſay*, accuſed of rioting. The diet againſt them was deſerted *pro loco et tempore*, and they were committed to priſon upon a new warrant.

George Johnſton, a boy, accuſed of culpable homicide. The diet againſt him was deſerted *ſimpliciter*, and he was diſmiſſed from the bar.

James Miller, accuſed of ſtealing a trunk, containing a variety of articles of wearing apparel, was found guilty, upon his own confeſſion, and ſentenced to five years tranſportation beyond ſeas.

Ayr, April 16.

The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened by the Right Hon. Lord CRAIG.

Margaret Campbell alias *Chriſtian M'Lean*, and *Margaret Stewart*, accuſed of theft. The diet againſt them was deſerted *pro loco et tempore*, and they were committed to priſon on a new warrant.

The Court gave judgment in one caſe of appeal.

APPEAL.

May 16. Birnie and Co. refiners at Silverfield, near Edinburgh, *verſus* Mrs Helen Weir, Bleacher at Lenloch. Counſel were finally heard relative to this appeal, after which, *Lord Eldon* roſe, and in a ſpeech of ſome length, took a comprehenſive view of the various circumſtances of the caſe, in which he conceived no legal queſtion, nor any principle of conſiderable importance, to be involved.—He ſhould, therefore, under that impreſſion, move their Lordſhips to reſolve not only to affirm the deciſion of the Scotch Court, but to adjudge the appellants to pay to the reſpondent the ſum of 100l. as coſts. On this motion, the queſtion being put, it was ordered accordingly.

19. Thomas Whytlaw, Merchant of Glaſgow, *verſus* Margaret Coats, only child and executrix of William Coats, late Merchant in Glaſgow.

The appellant's counſel only were heard, when Lord Eldon, moved their Lordſhips to affirm the decree of the Court of Seſſion, which was ordered accordingly.

The month of May has been uncommonly dry and fine weather. The wind changed from the eaſt on the 24th April, and continued to blow from a weſterly quarter till the 22d May; from that to end it was eaſterly. The range of the Thermometer, at noon, has been from 45 to 63 degrees. The purpoſes of huſbandry have been fully anſwered, and a great change produced on the crops. In ſome places, however, fields of wheat, and alſo of oats, have been plowed down, the failure being in part owing, it is ſaid, to the coldneſs of the early part of the ſpring, and partly to the badneſs of the ſeed.

The markets have been very indifferently ſupplied this month with butcher meat. The beef has been ſeldom good, though from 8d. to 10d. per lb. The veal from 7d. to 9d.; and lamb from 2s. 6d. to 5s. 6d. per quarter. The fiſh-market, however, has been well ſtocked in all the uſual kinds, particularly ſalmon and haddocks, and the prices moderate. Butter continues high, it has fallen from 2s. to 20d. per lb. Eggs 9d. per dozen.

THE Engliſh report ſtates, that although in ſome diſtricts the wheat crops appear to be rather thin, patchy, and not of the moſt healthy colour, there cannot be any doubt but that in moſt of thoſe countries where they were put into the ground at a proper period, and where good ſeed was ſown, there

there will be a good produce, as under ſuch circumſtances they have generally a highly promiſing aſpect at preſent. The barley and oat crops are in ſuch ſtates of vigorous growth, in almoſt every part of the iſland, eſpecially where ſown early, that they afford the pleaſing proſpect of being generally productive. In ſome parts of Wales and the northern counties of England, theſe crops have, however, been tedious and expenſive in putting into the ground, from the wetneſs of the ſeaſon, and the reduced ſtate of the teams of the farmers, from the dearneſs and ſcarcity of fodder of different kinds. The ſowing of barley in ſome of theſe diſtricts is only juſt finiſhed. Wheat averages throughout England and Wales, 121s. 1d. (and in Mark-lane, 115s. 10¾d. Rye, 90s. 3d. Barley, 64s. 8d. Oats, 45s. 11d. Beans, 76s. 11d. and Peas, 76s. 8d.

The plantation of potatoes has likewiſe been retarded, in ſome ſituations, from ſimilar cauſes; but on the whole, a very large crop of this valuable root has every where been put into the ground, and the plants that were early ſet have generally very good appearances of productiveneſs, as well as of being ready early.

Hops in the principal diſtricts where they are cultivated at preſent look well, and are free from diſeaſe; but this is a crop that depends greatly on the ſtate of the weather about the picking ſeaſon. Kentiſh bags fetch from 9 to 11 guineas, and pockets from 10 to 13 guineas.

Neither the plentifulneſs of the paſtures, nor the earlineſs of the ſpring, have yet had much effect in lowering the price of fat ſtock. Beef ſells in Smithfield market, from 4s. 8d. to 6s. 2d. Mutton, from 5s. 8d. to 6s. 8d. and Veal from 4s. to 6s. 6d. per ſtone of 8lb. ſinking the offal.

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

April 14. Lieut.-Colonel Hughes, to Miſs Hamilia Hamilton, daughter of John Hamilton of Sundrum, Eſq.

— Mr Daniel Mackenzie, merchant in Glaſgow, to Miſs Margaret Bannatyne, daughter of the late Rev. Charles Bannatyne of Irvine.

— Mr Samuel Hutchiſon, merchant in Ayr, to Miſs Smith, daughter of Alexander Smith of Abbothill, Eſq.

15. At Dunſe, Mr John Donaldſon of the Windſor Forreſters, to Miſs Elizabeth Hope Carnegie.

16. Hon. Captain John Ramſay, to Miſs Deliſle, daughter of the late Peter Deliſle, of Bengal, Eſq.

17. Rev. Thomas S. Hardie, to Miſs Jane Colvil, daughter of the Rev. Mr Colvil, miniſter of the goſpel at Ormiſton.

21. Mr Andrew Thomſon, merchant in Glaſgow, to Miſs Jean Craig, daughter of the deceaſed Mr Robert Craig, merchant.

28. Major General Edward Morriſon, to Lady Caroline King, daughter of the late Earl of Kingſton.

29. At Murraythall, Michael Linning, Eſq; of Cumberhead, to Miſs Wilſone, daughter of Henry Patrick Wilſone, Eſq; late in the Eaſt India Company's ſervice.

31. At Aberdeen, Andrew Biſſet, Eſq; Comptroller of the Cuſtoms, Montroſe, to Miſs Ann Ragg, from Maryland.

May 6. Captain Allan Maclean, of the 36th regiment, to Miſs Jean Cameron, daughter of the late Allan Cameron of Glendeſſary, Eſq.

7. At London, the Hon. John Cochrane, to Miſs Birch of Pinner.

10. Alexander Fraſer, Eſq; of Strichen, to Miſs Amelia Leſlie, daughter of John Leſlie of Balquhain, Eſq.

SEQUESTRATIONS.

March 29. Thomas Henry, brewer in Montroſe.

April 11. James Milligan and Robert Heriot, merchants in Glaſgow.

14. William Heſſack & Co. merchants in Montroſe.

18. John Scott, ſpirit-dealer in Glaſgow.

19. James Wemyſs, vintner in Berwic.

29. John Archer, candle-maker in Hamilton.

Haddington, May 30.

Beſt Wheat, 52s. Barley, 36s. Oats, 31s. Peaſe, 31s. Beans, 32s.

Edinburgh, May 30. Oat-meal, 3s. 2d. Bear-meal, 2s. Peaſe-meal, 2s. 2d.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

May 9.	May 24.
Bank Stock 162½	161½
3 per cent. red. 63¾	63¼
3 per cent. conſ. 64	63⅞
4 per cent. anns 80⅞	80
India Stock 210	209½
Eng. Lot. Tic.——	——